

# THE LITERARY GAZETTE

Journal of the Belles Lettres, Science, and Art.

No. 1911.

LONDON, SATURDAY, SEPTEMBER 3, 1853.

Price Fourpence.  
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**UNIVERSITY COLLEGE, LONDON.**—Junior School, under the Government of the Council of the College. Head Master, THOMAS HEWITT KEY, A.M. The School will OPEN on Friday, the 23rd September, for New Pupils. All the Boys must appear in their places without fail on Friday the 27th, at a quarter past nine o'clock.

The Session is divided into Three Terms,—viz., from the 23rd of September to Christmas, from Christmas to Easter, and from Easter to the 4th of August.

The yearly payment for each Pupil is £18, of which £5 are paid in advance in each Term. The hours of attendance are from a quarter past Nine to three quarters past Three o'clock. The afternoons of Wednesday and Saturday are devoted exclusively to Drawing.

The subjects taught are Reading, Writing, the English, Latin, Greek, French, and German Languages, Ancient and English History, Geography, both Physical and Political, Arithmetic and Book-keeping, the Elements of Mathematics, of Natural Philosophy, and of Chemistry and Drawing.

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A monthly report of the conduct of each Pupil is sent to his parent or guardian.

Further particulars may be obtained at the Office of the College. CHAS. C. ATKINSON, Secretary to the Council.

The College Lectures in the Classes of the Faculty of Medicine will commence on THURSDAY, the 3rd October; those of the Faculty of Arts on THURSDAY, the 13th of October.

August 31, 1853.

**GUYS, 1853-4.—THE MEDICAL SESSION** COMMENCES on the 1st of OCTOBER. The INTRODUCTORY ADDRESS will be given by HENRY OLDHAM, M.D., on SATURDAY, the 1st of October, at 2 o'clock. Gentlemen desirous of becoming Students must give satisfactory testimony as to their education and conduct. They are required to pay £10 for the first year, £10 for the second year, and £10 for every succeeding year of attendance; or £100 in one payment entitles a Student to a perpetual ticket. Dressers, Clinical Clerks, Ward Clerks, Obstetric Residents, and Dressers in the Eye Wards, are selected, according to merit, from those Students who have attended a second year.

Mr. Stocker, Apothecary to Guy's Hospital, will enter Students, and give any further information required. August 9, 1853.

**BRITISH ASSOCIATION for the ADVANCEMENT of SCIENCE.**—THE NEXT MEETING is appointed to take place in HULL, and to commence on Wednesday, September 7th, 1853.

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**ROYAL PANOPTICON of SCIENCE and ART.** Leicester Square.—Mr. HOLMES commenced a CLASS of PRACTICAL CHEMISTRY in the Laboratory of this Institution, on the 1st of September, for Medical Students, gentlemen amateurs, or gentlemen wishing to investigate any particular branch of chemical science. A separate Class for Ladies, and a Juvenile Class in the morning. Also, on the same day, Mr. Holmes commenced his Course of Agricultural Chemistry, embracing simple practical methods of analysing soils, manures, &c., and instructions in the application of chemical science to the general routine of farming operations. Applications for terms to be made to Mr. Holmes, at the Institution.

**MONT BLANC will CLOSE on SATURDAY** EVENING, September 10th, and RE-OPEN on Mr. Albert Smith's return from France. During the ensuing week the Entertainment will be given every Evening at 8, and Tuesday and Saturday Morning at 3 o'clock. Stalls 3s., Area 2s., Gallery 1s. Egyptian Hall, Piccadilly.

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The Ministers of the Established Church of Aberdeen, the Principals and Professors of King's and Marischal Colleges of Aberdeen, and the Trustees of the Testator, are appointed to nominate and make choice of Three Judges, who are to decide upon the comparative merits of such Treatises as shall be laid before them; and it may be proper to mention, that those who shall become Competitors for the said Premiums must transmit their Treatises to A. and J. WEBSTER, Advocates in Aberdeen, Agents of the Trustees, in time to be with them on or before the said First day of January, 1854, as names can be received after that date; and the Treatises must be sent free of all expense to the Trustees.

The Judges will then proceed to examine and decide upon the comparative merits of the Treatises laid before them, and the Trustees will, at the first term of Whit-Sunday after the determination of the Judges, pay the Premiums to the successful Candidates, agreeably to the will of the Testator.

The Trustees particularly request that the Treatises may not be in the hand-writing of their respective authors, nor have their names annexed to them. Each Treatise must be distinguished by a peculiar motto; this motto must be written on the outside of a sealed letter, containing the Author's name and his address, and sent along with his performance. The names of the successful Candidates only shall be known by opening their letters. The other letters shall be destroyed unopened. The writers of the unsuccessful Treatises may afterwards have them returned, by applying to Messrs. WEBSTER, or the Trustees, and by mentioning only the mottos addressed.

Letters, addressed as above, (post-paid), will meet with due attention; and it will save much trouble, in answering inquiries, to announce that there is no restriction imposed as to the length of the Treatises.

Aberdeen, August 10, 1853.

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## REVIEWS.

*Life and Times of Madame de Staël.* By Maria Norris. D. Bogue.

AMONG the names that shed a lustre on the end of the last and the beginning of the present century, few have obtained a wider or more deserved celebrity than that of Madame de Staël. As the daughter of Necker, the prime minister of France when the Bourbons and the old court retained almost all their ancient splendour, she was conspicuous in the foremost ranks of Parisian society; and she witnessed, from the most favourable point of view, the conduct of the aristocracy during the outbreaks of the terrible Revolution which swept them from the land they had mismanaged so long. Her talents and her influence rendered her formidable to Napoleon himself, who dreaded her polished sarcasms so much that he banished her from the salons of Paris which she loved. During her exile, she travelled much and wrote much; and by the grace of her works of imagination, and the research and philosophic spirit of her literary and political disquisitions, she raised herself to the highest honour among the writers of Europe. Possessed of all the sensibility and even the sentimentality of her sex, one cannot read her profound and sagacious reflections without being reminded of Hume's remark on Queen Elizabeth—that we should not think of her as a woman, so much as of a rational being sent forth by Providence to act an important part for the benefit and instruction of mankind. Some of her writings are of classical reputation, and her rank is high in the modern literature of France. But of her personal history and character little is known in England, and that little required explanation. Miss Norris has become her biographer, and enters on the task with an enthusiasm leading sometimes to partiality, but which she describes as the depth of regard with which the noble memory of Madame de Staël has inspired her.

The book opens with a sketch of the life, private and public, of M. de Staël's father, M. Necker. As his story is so universally known, we give only the account of his retirement from the troubled scenes of French politics, and the summary of his character as a public man:—

"The king was now to all intents and purposes a prisoner in his own capital; though Necker, from the same motive which prompted him to oppose the abandonment of Versailles, refused to acknowledge this fact in any of the public documents he issued. He still tried to act as though the king were master; but, forced in the end to yield, he finally left Paris on the 8th of September, 1790. There had been latterly, indeed, no chance for a moderate minister, and such Necker was, in spite of the calumnies of the old régime, who call him by all the names an old Roman might hurl at Catiline.

"Before he left, he entered a protest against the immense issue of paper-money, whereby the people hoped to escape some of their difficulties. He predicted that this system would work the ruin of the public creditors, but did not withdraw his own two millions of francs from the treasury.

"How had a year changed his situation! His name, owing partly to his inability to meet the crisis of affairs, partly to his moderation and faithfulness to the king, and still more to the shameless libels of his enemies, was as universally detested as it had been respected. Imitation is a powerful habit in France, and when a man there has one

enemy, he may be certain that ere long it will be the mode to hate him, if his foe be a man of any note. Sadly journeying towards Coppet by Bâle, he was arrested at Arcis-sur-Aube, and at Vesoul threatened with death. An order from the assembly, however, procured his release; and so he passed along the road which fifteen months before had been to him such a scene of triumph. The libels had penetrated into every corner of France; everywhere he found himself hated.

"One of the greatest rulers England ever had, when congratulated on the popular shouts which followed some victory, said wisely and sadly, 'They would shout just as loudly were I hanged to-morrow.'

"The French populace deserved no better character. They were as eager to pull down their idol as they had been to set him up. He, poor man, had never been over-elated by prosperity, or now he must have lost his reason. Cut to the heart, but grieving quite as much for France and the king as for himself, he retraced his path to reflect, in long years of retirement and solitude, over the successes and failures of a wrecked public life. Madame Necker pressed him to depart. She feared lest his life, which had been threatened, might be attacked; for his house was beset by his enemies. Madame de Staël, who so eagerly participated in all the pleasures of her father's prosperity, was infinitely afflicted by his reverses; not only her father's loss of popularity grieved her, but she feared lest the cause of liberty, so long identified with his name, might suffer for his failures.

"She had, however, just now, an alleviation to her sorrow, which might well absorb most of her thoughts. On the 31st of August, 1790, one of the two children who survived her was born, and a heart so impulsive as hers needed little else to fill it, for some time at least. Her illness prevented her accompanying Monsieur Necker into Switzerland, and she awaited news of him with intense anxiety. Her hopes of legitimate and solid liberty were all scattered as a fresh breeze scatters the loose-hanging autumn leaves; her desire for a French parliament after the English fashion was further than ever from realisation; the bright period of her youth had terminated, and her life henceforth was to be a long struggle against despotism, in one form or other. There was, indeed, a brief space of quiet at the close; as, when a morning of gladness and promise is succeeded by a stormy day, the clouds just part to leave the sunset room.

"On her recovery she proceeded to Coppet, where she found her dear father melancholy, but resigned. She walked with him in the shadow of the trees there; and in those gardens, where her spirit and his may yet be fancied to linger, many were the grave, earnest, sorrowful, and religious conversations they held together. Monsieur Necker's mind, but for his Christian faith, would have been morbidly affected by the loss of public esteem, for no man ever prized reputation higher than he. He was ready, too, to blame himself almost as severely as his enemies blamed him, and his excessive conscientiousness gave them always plenty of means to wound him.

"Meantime his beloved daughter was his advocate with himself, and her post was no sinecure; when she had restored his peace for a space, some fresh thought of self-reproach found a new commencement for her labours. Grateful to the fallen minister must have been the unvarying faith of this companion of his soul; whoever libelled him, whoever hated him, this one liberal enthusiastic creature clung to him and to the dogmas of his political creed with unvarying tenacity.

"No man was ever so beloved in his family, without being a really good man. His daughter, and, after her, her children, speak of him in the same eloquent strains, as their friend, their guide, their playfellow. His active political life was over; his pen he employed in the preparation of various works at different intervals, most of them bearing on the public affairs of France; but Prospero's books were destroyed, and nobody cared much what the retired minister thought about

France and her fortunes—he was a magician no longer."

It is rather a questionable phrase to say that "no man was ever so beloved in his family, without being a really good man." Miss Norris means that he could not have been beloved if he had not been really estimable in domestic life. In another place a general review of his career is given, and of his spirit in his retirement:—

"Let us add that Necker's exile was quite unembittered by misanthropy: it is only the Richelieus and the Machiavels who grow misanthropic by long and intimate knowledge of mankind. The large-souled statesman, whose royal will and great sympathies, added to a clear-sighted prudence, are Heaven's charter to govern—this man, in retirement or in office, is still a hopeful, helpful watcher of the onward tendencies of the human race. That race Necker sincerely loved.

"We have no intention of claiming for Monsieur Necker a title to the highest reputation as a statesman—his commercial education had perhaps narrowed his views too much for that: his political system was too exclusively a debtor and creditor account—a system of loans and credit, to obtain a great national popularity. When the public passions were aroused, and the people who had so long suffered heroically, demanded heroism from its rulers, Necker, the great master of finance, was, from the very nature of things, unequal to the management of the administration. His system of economy, of utility, of equalisation in the taxes, required a time of peace and prudence for its development; the bold strokes and noble concessions which might, even at the eleventh hour, have spared the French nation her baptism of blood, it was not in Necker's genius to conceive; and had he conceived them, a timidity about innovations, a cautiousness, healthful to a certain degree in other conditions of government, but fatal in this, would have prevented his striking the decisive blow.

"The extreme conditions, prosperity and adversity, are powerful tests of character; we have seen that Necker's moral being was so well balanced as to leave him very moderate and faithful amid the golden temptations of the first; equally well did he endure the greater ordeal; his exile was devoted to the completion of a work which he thought the age demanded—viz., a lucid exposition of the Christian religion.

"There is something infinitely grand and beautiful in this employment of a season of disgrace, and he who could, at such a time, distract his mind from secular affairs and fix it on the contemplation of immutable truth, is as far above our pity as the angels in heaven. We almost forget the weaknesses of his policy while gazing on him in the sublime attitude of a Christian teacher.

"We may rather give our pity to his loving and passionate-hearted daughter, who, with terrible powers of sympathy and emotion, flung herself Curtius-like into every opening gulf of her father's circumstances. The shadows were indeed gradually deepening about that woman whose childhood and early youth had been so gorgeously sunned in the light of happiness and good fortune. But there was yet a bright interval before the coming of the storm.

"Worthily does Necker contrast with the old courtier under whom he some time held office, the poor man who frittered away forty years of discipline in sighing after the royal antechambers, and the glories of gold and silver lace; hopeless is the case of these men, for whom sorrowful experiences are dumb. Monsieur de Maurepas returned at last to Versailles, bringing from his exile antique prejudices so rigidly preserved that his long absence from court seems a fable, and childish ignorance so complete as almost to give the lie to the facts of his history; it seems scarcely possible that such a man could be long seated in the cabinet of any sovereign, let the times and the nation be servile as they may."

Of Mr. Carlyle Miss Norris is apparently

an admirer, and sometimes falls into imitation of his quaintly graphic style, as in the description of the old French noblesse and the part they took in 1789:—

"Time is it surely for the nobility to purify itself, or for France to fling off the nobility.

"Let it die, and bury it decently out of sight, with all the honours due to a decayed respectability, if this life of corruption is the only existence it can compass.

"Well might Madame de Staël ask herself what business had these awkward plebeians among the nobility of France.

"Last came the clergy, the curés being separated from the prelates by a band of music. The higher clergy, in their robes of gorgeous hues, formed a splendid item in the procession. Authority in their mien, and dignity in their bearing, they seemed to represent a powerful public influence; but their supremacy had already largely declined, not so much by attack from without as by corruption from within. Some of the prelates were men of scandalous lives, and many were entirely absorbed in political affairs. Yet whatever had been the sins of that aristocratic priesthood, their transgressions were to be fearfully expiated on the scaffold or in exile. Their altar was to be thrown down, the church of their fathers abolished, the Goddess of Reason enthroned in place of the Mother of God. They were to read a lesson in the primer their church had ended for the education of the Huguenots, and truly it was a bitter one for both sects."

In the reflections on the death of Marie Antoinette, the following just remarks are made on the influence exercised by females in the history of France:—

"When we think of that awful scaffold whereon died heroically Louis XVI., and Marie Antoinette, all the best tendencies of our nature go to make us ultra-royalists; yet pity must not cause us to forget principles. If a death of heroism wiped out a life of crime or error, many a man, but ignoble company for royalty, might share the royal martyr's fame. The death of these unhappy princes no more excused the errors of monarchy, than the expiring tortures of an Indian chief atone for the cruelties himself has exercised. We may dispute the validity of the proceedings that tried them, and contend that their death was compassed by illegal means. Be it so: let us not, however, by the solemn shadow of that awful event, be prejudiced against the true cause of human right and liberty.

"It is somewhat astonishing that the country, of all countries the most careful to exclude females from the succession to the throne, should have been more largely, and perhaps fatally, under female influence than any other. Mistress, wife, or mother, over and over again has her spell prevailed; now it is Louise of Savoy who intercepts the pay of the troops in Italy, and drives the Constable de Bourbon to take arms against his sovereign; now it is Madame de Maintenon who procures the revocation of the edict of Nantes; now it is Joan of Arc restoring the crown to Charles VII.; now it is the lovely Théroigne de Méricourt inciting the people to take the crown from Louis XVI. As regents, Anne, daughter to Louis VIII., Catherine de Medicis, Mary, of the same house, and Anne of Austria, amply vindicated the right of their sex to power,—if a capacity for cruelty and intrigue, or for prudence and management, can accomplish such vindication.

"The age of Louis XVI., though the virtues of the king prevented such a kind of influence as had held in durance more than one of his predecessors, yields no exception to the fact that female intrigue was powerful at court. The queen was a true sovereign of the old school; having the courage of a hero, and the ignorance of a child. Her nature was not an unkindly or an unfaithful one; she loved her family, she loved her friends, and she was true to her own sympathies. But she had had the unhappiness to be educated in all the absurdities of etiquette: between her and the people lay a great gulf. Abuse

lute power she considered an indispensable condition for a ruler, though she would not have wished to see it cruelly exercised. Princes of this class can never understand that the people possess far too large a stake in the government to leave all to that 'happy accident'—a good-natured king. Besides, there is in man a pride which disdains to take as alms, what ought to be free to him of right. This too she could not understand.

"The right divine to govern wrong' was the only right she fully believed in.

"Little did the courtly Metastasio anticipate the fate which lay before the baby archduchess when he assured her imperial mother that, although Count Dietrichstein had lost a wager by the birth of a princess, the whole world had gained, if the report of her resemblance to Maria Theresa were true. And when he penned mellifluous verses 'to be sung by the archduchesses Carolina and Antonia, on the occasion of their august mother's birthday,' he might have put a sad song into the mouth of the five-year-old Antonia, could he have looked forward some few years.

"Poor little Antonia! Flattered and knelt to, and beset by every temptation to error, who can wonder that she believed in the monstrous falsehood then called a royal education? Who can remember her eager movement to raise the little Mozart when he had fallen on the ground, without feeling that, had she possessed different means of training, she might have extended her sympathy beyond one little musician on the floor, to thousands of her fellow-creatures, down-pressed and trodden under feet?

"But when a child is taught from the cradle that his safety is in 'things as they are,' who shall blame him for being, when he attains his manhood, averse to change and progress?

"Nor was the influence of woman ended with Marie Antoinette and her partisans: the revolutionary side, too, had its heroines.

"We have mentioned incidentally the name of Théroigne de Méricourt, the heroine of Liège. Who that has seen her portrait can ever forget the chivalrous bearing of this womanly knight? Who fail to put a generous interpretation on the fire of those fine fresh eyes? That gallant little figure with her rippling dusky hair, her round youthful form, her plumed hat, riding-dress, and delicate hand clasp the sword, seems born to inspire patriots.

"Then there was also the beautiful flower-girl, Louise, who penetrated to the royal presence; and overcome by the stress of emotion could utter only one word—'Bread!' A terrible prayer. Besides these there were female revolutionists whose names cannot be numbered; it was the women of Paris, as we shall see, who brought the king from Versailles to the capital on the 6th October. Merely political causes would not thus have inspired women, but Louise's petition for bread had been preferred by their suffering little children to these women of Paris, and they could answer the prayer only by tears.

"These poor women we may imagine were among the warmest of Monsieur Necker's partisans: they knew the efforts he had made to supply Paris with food. During his short absence, too, the story of his conduct to the Hopes would get about, and where is the woman who does not admire a man who makes a sacrifice to give her children bread? No wonder the women knelt in the scorched and barren fields as the wheels of the bread-giver carried him along the road."

Madame de Staël's life, when in exile in England, in 1793, is thus described:—

"In January, 1793, she established herself at a house called Juniper Hall, at Mickleham, near Richmond, in Surrey. It is a small white Gothic building, still to be seen, and lying westward from the bridge.

"Monsieur de Talleyrand was already in England, and rented a house in Woodstock-street: the pressure of the times drove many illustrious French people to our shores, and several of them were the friends and companions of Madame de Staël at Richmond. Among her guests were De Narbonne (whose life she had saved the year before); Madame

de la Châtre; another lady, daughter of the unhappy minister, Montmorin; and Monsieur d'Arblay, of whom we shall have more to say. Thus Madame de Staël became, in some sort, the head of the French colony at Richmond.

"Their funds were not in the most flourishing condition; and the prospect of war did not favour the continuance of such remittances as they might otherwise hope to get; yet their national gaiety seems to have borne them through their difficulties with considerable credit to themselves.

"We are told that this little party could afford to purchase only one small carriage, which took two persons, and that De Narbonne and Talleyrand alternately assumed the post of footman, as they rode about to see the country; removing the glass from the back of the coach in order to join the conversation of those within.

"The neighbourhood they had chosen for their residence is one naturally beautiful, and so characteristically English as to seem racy and fresh to the eye of a foreigner; grateful to those storm-tossed spirits must have been the scenes of rural peace which there spread about them; and still more grateful, the kindly English hospitality which there awaited them.

"It was indeed a new element infused into the half city, half rural life of the then courtly suburb; almost every day some fresh comer brought new tidings of trouble and desolation, and narrow escapes. At one time it was De Narbonne who came with the Hanoverian doctor's passport in his hand, and the tale of Madame de Staël's heroism on his lips; then it was Madame de Staël herself, who made the quiet English gentry, in some sort, partisans of her father, while she told with eager tongue and fiery glance, of his goodness, of his popularity, of his failure and retirement; of his prophecies, so lamentably true: and of the spark of hope he and she yet had in the storm-threatening future.

"Now it was the Duchess de Broglie, with her little son, escaped from perils of the sea, after hours passed in an open boat on a starless night. Now it was Montmorin's daughter weeping at the recollection of the scaffold whereon her father had fallen.

"The enthusiasm of this somewhat melancholy little colony early infected Miss Fanny Burney, daughter to Dr. Burney, the musician, and at that time, or shortly before it, one of Queen Charlotte's waiting-women. Another daughter of Dr. Burney was married to Mr. Phillips, whose seat, Norbury Park, was in the immediate neighbourhood of Juniper Hall, the residence of Madame de Staël and her fellow exiles."

It was at Richmond that the scandal arose about Madame de Staël, which at the time gave an unfavourable impression of her character in English society. Her biographer does not give credit to the reports which were generally received as to her intimacy with the Count de Narbonne. M. de Narbonne afterwards took service under the Emperor, and was one of the thousands who perished in the terrible retreat from Moscow. We may here give the account of Madame de Staël's second visit to England in 1813, when her fame had become European, and when she shone as one of the stars of London society:—

"She landed at Harwich in June, 1813, with profound emotions of affection towards a country she and her father had always loved. The road from Harwich to London pleased her; the neat houses, each encircled by a garden plot; the green hedges, the standing harvest, the shadowy trees, the cottages which appeared to her in excellent repair, all seemed to tell of English comfort and peace. She came, we must remember, prepared to admire us extravagantly; we shall see whether, when a nearer view gave her the opportunity critically to analyse our liberty and its sources, she preserved her respect for her model-country. If she did, we may safely conclude there really was something to love and value.



"Arrived in London, she took up her abode at No. 30, Argyle-place, Regent-street, and soon beheld in her drawing-room the rendezvous of all the rank and fashion in town. She was the lion of the season, and according to an aristocratic witness, spoiled the campaign of Doctor and Miss Edgeworth, who had been the fashion during the earlier part of the year. The first nobility received her; at the house of Lord Lansdowne, at that time a young man, now the Nestor of the party he then dowered with the promise of his talent, immense crowds assembled to see her: the eagerness to catch a glimpse of her dark and striking face conquered all the ordinary restraints of high society, and the first ladies in the kingdom, we are told, mounted on chairs and tables to gaze at the woman who for ten weary years had endured almost unexampled insult and persecution. No wonder she found the London parties so insufferably crowded that to elbow her way through a fashionable reception-room, required no mean degree of physical energy. Whatever truth there may be in this statement, in a general way, the great crush of 1813 was caused by the universal desire to see and hear the person whom Lord Byron has called the first female author of his or any age.

"She was now as completely in her element as, out of Paris, she could possibly find herself. Sir James Mackintosh had returned from his Indian appointment, and was one of the first to honour her; he wrote, at that time, a review of her works in the 'Edinburgh Review,' in the course of which article he says, 'The voice of Europe has already applauded the genius of a national painter in the author of "Corinne."' Everywhere she was received with fervour. It is a libel on the English, she tells us, to say they are cold and passionless. 'They are like the Albanian dogs sent by Porus to Alexander, which disdained to fight any animal but a lion.' This idea was probably the fruit of the brilliant and enthusiastic reception wherewith she was greeted. Lords Holland, Grey, and Harrowby, Erskine, Jersey, Lansdowne, and Byron, were successively her hosts, or her visitors; sometimes both. She revelled in the free atmosphere of England, breathing which, she might say all the truth she thought and fear no evil.

"Her society was, to be sure, not very well assorted. Her political consequence and connexions gave her friends of a certain class and kind, while her literary reputation gathered around her admirers of all ranks. She was too kindly, if not indeed too fond of incense to turn any away. Her hospitality was extended to all. Her table, Lord Byron says, reminded him of the grave, where all distinctions are levelled. He saw there peers and dandies, the azure jackets of the *littérateur*, and the regular Grub-street scribes. But a foreigner could not be expected to understand the delicate yet marked gradations of English society; and her trifling mistakes were forgiven for the sake of her enthusiasm and her honesty. Her maternal heart must have been gladdened by the admiration attracted by Mademoiselle de Staël, whose proficiency in music and graceful dancing made her as charming as she was amiable: Lord Byron, no mean critic, says he saw her dance a Russian saraband with much ease and elegance.

"Madame de Staël was joined, soon after her arrival, by her elder son, who had remained in Switzerland to watch over her fortune. Sir Walter Scott says, the Baron Auguste de Staël was the only foreigner he ever heard who could speak English like a native; and the grave courtesy and kindly manners of the young man recommended him to the regard of all who saw him. \* \* \*

"Scandal, which had dared to blight her name in 1793, now recalled, or at any rate silenced, her pestilent whisperings. In a letter written about this time, Madame d'Arblay has the following:—"I am truly glad you had a gratification you so earnestly coveted—that of seeing Madame de Staël; your account of her was extremely interesting to me. As to myself, I have not seen her at all. Various causes have kept me in utter retirement, and, in truth, with respect to Madame de Staël, my situation is truly embarrassing." (Deservedly so, we

think; but Madame d'Arblay further says): "I do not recollect if I communicated to you our original acquaintance, which, at first, was intimate. I shall always, internally, be grateful for the partiality with which she sought me out upon her arrival in this country before my marriage, and still and far more, if she can forgive my dropping her —. She is now received by all mankind—but that, indeed, she always was (all womankind, I should say)—with distinction and pleasure."

"Madame de Staël attended a public charitable meeting, where the Dukes of York and Sussex, and Mr. Wilberforce, successively addressed the audience; our asylums and other foundations of charity she inspected and admired: in fact, she tried hard to master all the details of common English life.

"The London season ended, she was invited to see some of the nobility in their country homes: among the rest, she visited Lord Jersey at Middleton, Lord Lansdowne at Bowood. 'How is it possible,' she exclaims, 'that a French courtier is content, nay, even enraptured, with a life frittered away between Paris and Versailles, when an important and kindly career, like that of an English nobleman on his estate, is equally within reach of his realisation?'"

We have still a few short extracts to give, including the biographer's estimate of Madame de Staël's writings. Various faults appear in the work, but on these we are disposed to look leniently, as the author disarms criticism by her own frank apologies. Few writers have succeeded so well in a first youthful effort, and the principles and talents displayed in the work deserve approval and encouragement. Of the life and times of Madame de Staël, Miss Norris has written a concise and interesting narrative.

*A Naturalist's Rambles on the Devonshire Coast.* By Philip Henry Gosse, A.L.S.; author of 'A Naturalist's Sojourn in Jamaica.' John Van Voorst.

THE wonders of marine zoology are beginning to be unfolded to popular view. The works of Forbes, Johnston, Landsborough, and other men of science, have of late years done much to render this branch of natural history generally attractive. The successful establishment of the marine aquatic Vivarium at the Zoological Society's Garden will introduce many to a new field of observation and study. Of the multitudes that every year crowd to our watering-places, few are aware of the strange and beautiful animals that teem on the coasts, the lovely forms and hues of which, their marvellous structures, and curious instincts, afford exhaustless sources of intelligent recreation. Southey, in a beautiful passage in one of his poems (*Kehama*, xvi. 5), describes literally what may be seen in many a tide-pool on the rocky shores of England, and what might seem the gorgeous fancies of imagination are but plain representations of the facts of nature:—

"And here were coral-bowers,  
And grots of madrepores,  
And banks of sponge, as soft and fair to eye  
As e'er was mossy bed  
Whereon the wood-nymphs lie  
With languid limbs in summer's sultry hours.  
Here too were living flowers,  
Which like a bud compacted,  
Their purple cups contracted,  
And now, in open blossom spread,  
Stretch'd like green anthers many a seeking head.  
And arbores of jointed stone were there,  
And plants of fibres fine as silkworm's thread;  
Yea, beautiful as mermaid's golden hair  
Upon the waves disparted.  
Others that, like the broad banana growing,  
Rais'd their long wrinkled leaves of purple hue,  
Like streamers wide outflowing."

Mr. Gosse has supplied a handbook which will serve as an easy and pleasant guide to

the natural history of the sea-side. It is not a book of systematic zoology, but in its varied and attractive pages is what it professes to be, the record of a naturalist's rambles on one part of our coasts. Nor does he confine himself to marine zoology:—

"I venture to ask your companionship, courteous reader, in my rambles over field and down in the fresh dewy morning; I ask you to listen with me to the carol of the lark, and the hum of the wild bee; I ask you to stand with me at the edge of the precipice and mark the glories of the retting sun; to watch with me the mantling tide as it rolls inward, and roars among the hollow caves; I ask you to share with me the delightful emotions which the contemplation of unbounded beauty and beneficence ever calls up in the cultivated mind. Hence I have not scrupled to sketch pen-pictures of the lovely and romantic scenery with which both the coasts of Devon abound; and to press into my service personal narrative, local anecdote, and traditional legend; and, in short, any and every thing, that, having conveyed pleasure and interest to myself, I thought might entertain and please my reader. It is not the least of the advantages of the study of natural history, that it strengthens in us 'the habit of wishing to discover the good and the beautiful in all that meet and surround us.' If it should be objected that—to treat of the facts which science reveals to us, in any other manner than that technical measured style, which aims not at conveying any pleasurable emotions beyond the mere acquisition of knowledge, and is therefore satisfied with being coldly correct,—is to degrade science below its proper dignity, I would modestly reply that I think otherwise. That the increase of knowledge is in itself a pleasure to a healthy mind is surely true; but is there not in our hearts a chord that thrills in response to the beautiful, the joyous, the perfect, in Nature? I aim to convey to my reader, to *reflect*, as it were, the complacency which is produced in my own mind by the contemplation of the excellence impressed on everything which God has created."

Of a book written with this design and in this strain it matters little from what part we give extracts. We select some passages which will show the variety of objects which come under observation, and the pleasant manner in which the author describes them. We begin with part of the description of one of the zoophytes which may most readily be examined:—

"All along this line of limestone rock, in almost every tide-pool and hollow that retains the seawater, from the size of one's hand upwards, we may at any time find colonies of the lovely *Daisy Anemone*, *Actinia bellis*. In the sunshine of a fair day they expand beautifully, and you may see them studding the face of the rock just beneath the surface, from the size of a shilling to that of a crown piece. Nothing seems easier than to secure them, but no sooner do the fingers touch one, than its beautifully circular disk begins to curl and pucker its margin, and to incurve it in the form of a cup; if further annoyed, the rim of this cup contracts more and more, until it closes, and the animal becomes globose and much diminished, receding all the time from the assault, and retiring into the rock. Presently you discover that you can no longer touch it at all: it is shrunk to the bottom of its hole; the sharp irregular edges of which project and furnish a stony defence to the inhabitant. Nothing will do but the chisel, and this is by no means easy of appliance. It is rare that the position of the hole is such as to allow of both arms working with any ease; the rock is under water, and often, if your chisel is short, it is wholly immersed during the work, when every blow which the hammer strikes upon its head has to fall upon a stratum of water, which splashes forcibly into your eyes and over your clothes; the rock is very hard, and the chisel makes little impression; and what is frequently the greatest disappointment of all, the powdery debris produced by the bruising of



the stone, mingles with the water and presently makes it perfectly opaque, as if a quantity of powdered chalk had been mixed with it, so that you cannot see how to direct the blows, you cannot discern whether you have uncovered the *Actinia* or not, and frequently are obliged to give up the attempt when nearly accomplished, simply because you can neither see hole nor *Actinia*, and as to feeling in the pap-like mud that your implement has been making, it is out of the question. Supposing, however, that you have got on pretty well, that by making a current in the pool with your hand you have washed away the clouded water sufficiently to see the whereabouts, and that you perceive that another well-directed blow or two will split off the side of the cavity,—you have now to take care so to proportion the force that at last you may neither crush the animal with the chisel on the one hand, nor on the other drive it off so suddenly that it shall fall with the fragment to the bottom of the pool out of reach.

"However, we will suppose you have happily detached and secured your *Actinia* without injury. But how unlike its former self, when you were desirous of making its closer acquaintance, is it now! A little hard globose knob of flesh, not so big as a schoolboy's marble, is the creature that just now expanded to the sun's rays a lovely disk of variegated hues, with a diameter greater than that of a Spanish dollar. It is, moreover, covered with tenacious white slime, which exudes from it faster than you can clear it away; and altogether its appearance is anything but inviting. You throw it into a jar of water, which of course you have with you when collecting living zoophytes; and thus bring it home, when you transfer it to a tumbler or other suitable vessel of clear sea-water freshly drawn. And here let us watch its changes;—which, however, will not be effected immediately; for it will not expand itself in all its original beauty until it has taken a fresh attachment for its base, which will not in all probability be for a day or two at least.

"The body or stem of *Actinia bellis* is more or less cylindrical generally; though subject to some change in this respect, for it is occasionally a little enlarged, as it approaches the disk; the sucking base is slightly larger than the diameter of the body, which in specimens of an inch-and-a-half expanse, may be about half an inch. The length of the body varies much, according to the depth of the cavity in which the animal lives, for it must expand its disk at the surface. In the open water in a vase, when it appears at home, it may commonly be about an inch from the base to the expansion of the disk, but I have a beautiful specimen before my eye at this moment, which has stretched itself to a height of three inches, expanding at the extremity as usual: the thickness of the stem is in this case somewhat diminished.

"From the upper part of the cylindrical stem or body, the disk abruptly spreads around to the width above indicated. In this respect the *A. bellis* differs so greatly from other littoral species of sea-anemones, that it can never be mistaken by those who have once seen it. In these the disk is merely the termination of a short thick column, occasionally a little expanded over the edge; in *bellis*, however, the diameter of the disk is generally four times that of the body, at the point from which it expands. Its form, viewed externally, is that of a shallow cup, but its surface is in general almost flat, or a very little depressed to the centre. The whole bears a likeness closer than usual to a flower, with a footstalk. The disk is so thin and membranous, that it is continually changing its form; the margin is frequently bent over outwardly or inwardly in places; as it lies on the uneven rock, it accommodates itself to the roughness, and is hence often irregularly undulated; it very commonly bends inward the edge in several places, so as to make puckers or frilled scollopings around the margin. And this surely must be meant by what writers describe and draw as 'lobes' to the disk: for of lobes proper it has none; not the slightest trace; the outline of the disk is most perfectly and beautifully circular; and I find

it often expanded in this state, without any puckering or festooning.

"The tentacles are small but numerous; they are arranged in about six rows; the innermost series contains about twelve tentacles; the next about the same number; the third about twice as many; the fourth is again doubled; the fifth increases in the same proportion, and the sixth contains about thrice as many as the fifth. This ratio, if accurately carried out, would give a total of seven hundred and sixty-eight tentacles to one *Actinia*, a number which is not far from the mark, though, as in other species, the rows are not quite regular. The innermost series of tentacles is usually erect, or even inclines inwards, the others decline more and more towards the circumference, until the outmost two or three rows lie quite flat upon the disk, to which the exterior one of all forms an exquisite fringe; all the rows are small, but they diminish outwardly in size, and more rapidly the nearer they approach the edge; those of the outmost row are very minute, the longest (for they are not equal) not exceeding the sixteenth of an inch in length, and some being only tiny tubercles: they are slender, and set so close together, that I counted sixty in an inch.

"The mouth is oblong, sometimes contracted to a slit, at others showing a sub-oval, or lozenge-shaped opening, with the lips within finely crenated. Delicate depressed lines diverge from the mouth to the circumference of the disk, by tracing which we shall find that the convex space included between two lines leads to and terminates in a tentacle; the disk may in fact be described as formed of the roots of the tentacles soldered together. Viewed from outside, with a strong light behind, the substance of the disk is exquisitely beautiful; the diverging but almost parallel fibres, resembling the grain of a beautiful piece of wainscot, and each ending abruptly with a rounded point, where the tentacle springs up from the surface on the opposite side.

"The colours of this very lovely *Actinia* I have not found to vary much. The base is white, which as it ascends becomes flesh-coloured, then lilac, passing (at about the point where the disk expands) to a dull greyish purple, more or less tinged with brown. The upper part of the stem, and the whole of the outer surface of the disk, are studded with pale spots, which are the extremities of tubular glands, one use of which is to attach by a kind of suction, minute bits of shell, gravel, &c., to the surface, for concealment as is supposed. I have not seen this habit commonly resorted to by this species, but I have witnessed it.

"The upper surface of the disk is of a rich deep umber-brown, often mottled with grey at the first row of tentacles, and merging into grey, lavender-colour, or white, towards the third or fourth row. The tentacles are tapered to a point; they are grooved longitudinally on the upper side; they are commonly dark brown at the base, and yellowish-brown through the rest of their length, blotched and speckled with white. Those of the innermost row, and frequently some of the others, have one or two broad rings of pure conspicuous white near the basal part, and a broad spot of white divided by a brown line lengthwise, on the disk just at their foot. There is some diversity in the proportions of brown and grey in different individuals, but the yellowish brown tentacle studded with whitish specks is, I think, characteristic."

In the account of the Madreporae some curious experiments are recorded as to their modes of feeding:—

"They are very greedy, and the presence of food stimulates them to more active efforts, and the display of greater intelligence, than we should give them credit for. I put a minute spider, as large as a pin's head, into the water, pushing it down with a bit of grass to a Coral, which was lying with partially exposed tentacles. The instant the insect touched the tip of a tentacle it adhered, and was drawn in with the surrounding tentacles between the plates, near their inward margin. Watching the animal now with a lens, I saw the

small mouth slowly open, and move over to that side, the lips gaping unsymmetrically; while at the same time by a movement as imperceptible as that of the hour-hand of a watch, the tiny prey was carried along between the plates towards the corner of the mouth. The latter, however, moved most; and at length reached the edges of the plates, and gradually took in and closed upon the insect; after which it slowly returned to its usual place in the centre of the disk.

"After some quarter of an hour, observing that the tentacles were more fully expanded than before, and inferring that so tiny a morsel had only whetted the Coral's appetite, I caught a house fly in the window pane, and taking hold of its wings with a pair of pliers, plunged it under water. The tentacles held it at the first contact as before, and drew it down upon the mouth, which instantly began to gape in expectation. But the struggles of the fly's legs perhaps tickled the Coral's tentacles in an unwonted manner, for they shrank away, and presently released the intended victim, which rose to the surface like a cork; only however to become the breakfast of an expectant *Actinia bellis*, which was much too wise to reject or to let slip so dainty a prey. The poor Coral evidently regretted the untoward necessity of letting it go, for his mouth,—I will not say watered, for being under water the expression might be open to criticism, but—gaped, for some time after the escape.

"I more commonly, however, fed them with shell fish, such as limpets, periwinkles, &c., cutting these into pieces proportionate to the size of the Madreporae. In taking a large morsel, the mouth is produced out, and stretched over it, the unyielding stony margin of the stomachal cavity preventing it from being drawn in, as it would be in the case of an *Actinia*; and hence when the food has disappeared, the lips having first embraced it on every side and then covered it, meeting in a little puckered knot in the centre, the whole oral disk projects perpendicularly from amidst the tentacles like a thick pillar, through whose pellucid sides the contained food is seen as a dark nucleus. Maceration, however, soon softens the morsel, and it is not long before all the parts resume their ordinary proportions and relations; the tentacles and the outer margin becoming distended with water, and rising to the level of the mouth, if the size of the food still prevents the latter from sinking to theirs. After a period, varying from five or six to twenty-four hours, the morsel is evacuated rather suddenly, very little changed, if it be solid, in form or appearance, and not invested with that glairy mucus, which covers the rejected remains of an *Actinia*'s food.

"There appears to be the sense of taste, or some perception analogous to it, in these creatures, at least so far as to enable them to discriminate in their reception of food. I cut a large specimen of one of our most common rock shell-fish, *Trochus cinerarius*, into many pieces, distributing most of them among my dozen pet Madreporae. They began to take in their morsels with as prompt a voracity as usual, but every one, without an exception, rejected the food before it was half swallowed. The same pieces were taken and swallowed by *Actinia bellis*, *gemmacea*, and *auguicoma*, and by *Anthea cereus*, though not apparently with much gusto. The lean of cooked meat, and portions of earth worms, were unobjectionable to all."

Here is the natural history of an animal familiar to every one at the table, the Prawn:

"Beyond the chasm just described, we scramble into another, and come to a far larger and lower tide-pool, so low as to be separated from the sea only at spring-tides. It is about twenty-five feet long, and eight or ten wide, and is quite over-shadowed by the dark rock, in a sort of cavern of which it lies. The great ear-weeds and tangles (*Laminaria saccharina* and *digitata*) have here room to attain their full size; and their rich brown fronds wave to and fro, or lie motionless in the clear water, often supporting whole forests of tiny zoophytes, such as *Laomedea geniculata*. All round the edges of the pool, from the water-line down-

wards, grow in luxuriance the large oval dark red fronds of the dulse (*Fridaea edulis*) and the more brilliant and more elegant *Delesseria sanguinea*, of which an American poet has said,—

'The crimson-leaf of the dulse is seen  
To blush like a banner bathed in slaughter;'

and other minor sea-weeds, mostly of the red class, are found in fine condition, some in and some out of the water.

"Large prawns swim at freedom through this large pool; and a very pleasing sight it is to watch them as they glide gracefully and equally along. The tail-fans are widely dilated, rendering conspicuous the contrasted colours with which they are painted; the jaws are expanded, the feet hanging loosely beneath. Now one rises to the surface almost perpendicularly; then glides down towards the bottom, sweeping up again in a graceful curve. Now he examines the weeds, then shoots under the dark angles of the rock. As he comes up towards me, I stretch out my hand over the water; in an instant he shoots backwards a foot or so; then catching hold of a weed with his feet, and straddling its vertical edge, he remains motionless, gazing up at me with his large prominent eyes, as if in the utmost astonishment.

"This prawn, that comes to our tables decked out and penetrated, as it were, with a delicate, pellucid, rose-colour, beautiful as he is then, is far more beautiful when just netted from the bottom, or from the overhanging weed-grown side, of some dark pool. If you happen never to have seen him in this state, let me introduce him to you. Form and dimensions of course you are acquainted with; these do not change, but I will just observe that it is a 'sizeable' fellow that is now before me, whose portrait I am going to take. Stand still, you beauty! and don't shoot round and round the jar in that retrograde fashion, when I want to jot down your elegant lineaments! There, now he is quiet! quiet but watchful! maintaining a sort of armed neutrality, with extended eyes, antennæ stretching perpendicularly upwards, claws held out divergently with open pincers ready to seize, as if those slender things could do me any harm, and feet and expanded tail prepared in a twinkling to dart backward on the least alarm.

"Look then at his *cephalo-thorax*, or what you would perhaps call the head, the cylindrical shield that you would pick off as the first essay towards eating him. Its ground colour is a greenish grey, but so translucent that we can hardly assign any hue-proper to it. This is marked with several stripes of rich deep brown, running longitudinally, each stripe being edged with buff. Then the body, or more correctly the *abdomen*, is marked with about a dozen stripes of a similar colour, but set transversely, girding the segments round with a series of dark lines; and the last segment before the setting on of the tail-fins has three lines running lengthwise again.

"Now we come to the tail. But here the pen fails; only the pencil could convey an adequate idea of this exquisitely painted organ. The four oval plates, that play over each other, and that form a broad and powerful fin when expanded, are bordered with a pale red band: the outer pair have in the centre a red spot, the inner pair a streak of the same hue; each plate has near its extremity a spot of cream-white (much larger on the outer pair) made more conspicuous by being broadly margined by reddish brown. Finally, the plates are studded all over with red specks, which, when magnified, are seen to be stars. Besides these colours there are scattered over the body in symmetrical order, several spots of opaque cream white, and some of pale chestnut or fawn-brown. And to close this enumeration of colours, the claws and feet are light blue, encircled at regular distances by bands, of which half is deep purple and the other half pale orange. I have not spoken of the fringes of the jaw-plates, nor of those that terminate the tail-fin, but the structure of these is exquisitely fine, especially when examined with a lens.

"To add to these beauties, there is seen in certain lights a rich flush of iridescent purple, reflected from the whole surface of the animal.

"A few hours' captivity changes all this, and the Prawn, though it does not appear to have suffered in health or vigour, has put on a most quakerly sobriety of colour, all the fine bands and stripes and spots having become so pale as to be scarcely distinguishable from the general pellucid olive hue of the body.

"I cannot tell how this loss of colour is effected; but I have reason to think that light, the great agent in producing colour in most cases, is the cause. I took two specimens just dipped from a deep pool, and equal in the richness of their contrasted colours: one of these I placed in a large glass vase of sea-water that stood on my study-table; the other in a similar vase shut up in a dark closet. In twenty-four hours the one that had been exposed to the light had taken on the pale appearance just alluded to; the one that had been in darkness had scarcely lost any of the richness of its bands and stripes, though the general olive hue of the body had become darker, and of a browner tint. This individual, however, assumed the appearance of the former, before it had been an hour emancipated from its dark closet. Without attempting to account for the phenomenon, I would just advert to the parallel exhibited by the seaweeds. The brilliant colours displayed by many of these exist, as is well known, in the greatest perfection, when the plants grow at considerable depths, or in the caves and holes of the rocks, where light can but very dimly penetrate. Some of these will not grow at all in shallow water or in a full light; and those that can bear such circumstances are commonly affected by them in a very marked degree,—marked by the degeneracy of their forms, and by the loss of their brilliancy of colour. The prawn, as I have already hinted, delights in the obscurity of deep holes and rocky pools; it is here alone that his fine zebra-like colours are developed. When taken in shallow pools, he is of the plain pale-olive tint of the specimen that had spent four-and-twenty hours on my table."

Let us now accompany our naturalist in one of his rambles on shore, where he describes a summer morning walk:—

"Who does not know the delightful feelings excited by a walk in the early morning of a hot summer's day? The freshness, the coolness, the thinness of the air, the unclouded clearness of the blue sky, the warm glow that hangs all about on the horizon, the silvery dew that lies upon the grass and herbage like a veil of fine muslin,—all combine to produce a buoyancy and exhilaration of spirits, peculiar to the time. I set out on a walk to Lee on such a morning about the end of July; the sun was not yet up, but the long vermilion clouds that stretched across the glowing sky in the north-east, told of his presence, like the gorgeous standard that floats over the pavilion of a king.

"The great black slugs were crawling on the wet turf by the road-side; creatures anything but attractive in themselves, and yet, associated as they are with the mornings and evenings of the most charming season of the year, not only tolerated but even welcomed.

"Before I had reached the end of the long steep lane that terminates in Langley Open, the sun was climbing his steeper course, and pouring down such concentrated rays as foretold a calm burning day. The hills were covered with a hot haze, in which their outlines were tremulously quivering. The air was filled with a constant buzz from the two-winged flies that were hovering about the hedges: and the dull brown butterflies were flitting along in their dancing jerking flight all around.

"I marked the change in the appearance of the hedge-rows and banks produced by the progress of the season. The spring flowers had all departed; there were no primroses now; no germander speedwells, no violets, no pileworts, scarcely any red campions; but purple loosestrife and the great willow-herb sprang up in the ditches; the long straggling shoots of the brambles were covered with flesh-coloured blossoms; and the dense spikes of *Teucrium* were every where prominent. The

abundance of yellow flowers indicated the approach of autumn; the handsome spikes of the yellow toad-flax with its curiously spurred flowers crowned the tall hedges, and a *Potentilla* was seen here and there on the bank; but the composite flowers that botanists term *Syngenesia* were chiefly characteristic; the hawkweeds, and groundels, and ox-tongues, and sow-thistles.

"The foliage of the hedges and all the herbage had lost the delicacy of spring, and had grown rank, and coarse, and sprawling; seeds were ripening on all sides, and ferns were putting on their under-clothing of brown tracery.

'Not seldom did we stop to watch some tuft  
Of dandelion seed or thistle's beard,  
That skimmed the surface of the [grassy field];  
Suddenly-taking now,—a lifeless stand!  
And starting off again with freak as sudden.'

WORDSWORTH.

"Langley Open is a wide undulating down of great elevation: it is, indeed, with the exception of Langley Cleve, a large rounded hill on the left, the loftiest land in the vicinity. Hillsborough, which is nearly 500 feet above the sea level, is considerably inferior, for the eastern horizon was visible above its summit. It was a lovely scene. From my feet the green down sloped away a few hundred yards to the edge of the precipice, in one direction indented to form a deep, fern-covered glen, which appeared as if it would afford an easy access to the beach; a deceptive promise, however; for the adventurer, after wending his difficult and hazardous way through the gully, would at length find himself at the margin of a yawning chasm, with angular, almost perpendicular, sides, and see the inviting little beach, perfectly inaccessible, a hundred and fifty feet below him.

"From the position in which I was, however, I could not see any portion of the shore except the terminations of one or two projecting points of rock; but the hollow sound of the surf that was breaking over those points, and rolling in among the boulders and pebbles, came pleasantly on the ear. The deep blue sea lay spread out in wide expanse, studded with shipping and bounded by the distant coast: tiny waves ruffled up by the western breeze were speckling the surface with those snowy masses of foam that mariners call 'white horses'; or, to use the poet's similitude,—

'Ocean's mermaid shepherdess  
Drives her white flocks afield, and warns in time  
The wary fisherman.'

and the dark shadows of the floating clouds were chasing each other over the sparkling plain, turning the brilliant whiteness of the ships' sails into a dusky grey, as they fled by.

"Turning, I saw the valley up which I had been toiling; the town of Ilfracombe embosomed among the hills, the shipping in the harbour, Hillsborough and other bluff headlands that distinguish this part of the coast receding in succession, until they faded into a dim and untraceable line far up the channel towards Bristol. But prominent among them was one conical mass, attracting notice as well by its superiority of magnitude to all the others, as by the simple majesty of its uninterrupted outline, rising to a peak from the land, and then descending with a similar angle to the sea. This mountain, which is between eleven and twelve hundred feet above the sea-level, bears the singular name of the Hangman, derived from a romantic incident which legendary tradition has preserved.

"Many, many years ago, it is said, a man went out one night and stole a sheep from the flocks, which then, as now, grazed on the slopes of these lofty downs. He had killed it, and was carrying it home on his back, having tied the legs with a single rope which he had passed over his head, and held in his hands. As he was crossing the down he came to one of the low stone walls which form the fences in this part of the country, and being tired he rested his burden for a few minutes on the top of the wall. By some accident, however, the sheep slipped over the wall, and the wretched man, being off his guard, was not quick enough to prevent the rope from catching him by the throat, nor could all his efforts then succeed in relaxing the pressure. He was found in the morning in



this position quite dead, the providence of God having ordained that thus suddenly he should meet the felon's doom, and that his ill-gotten booty should itself become his executioner.

"As I turned to pursue my walk, another fine example of coast scenery lay before me. The bluff and bleak promontory known as the Bull was there, projecting its abruptly precipitous head far into the blue sea, and between me and it was the little bay of Lee, a lovely spot, whose beauty I have before recorded. The cliffs on the opposite side, covered with small wood, bushes, fern, and ivy nearly to their foot, and inclosing, as if with lofty walls, on all but the seaward side, little quiet bathing coves with beaches of white sand, attracted my admiration; surmounted as they were with a pretty villa embosomed in orchards and surrounded by cultivated fields. A flagstaff crowned one of the peaks that rose above this scene, and far beyond all, on the distant horizon, was stretched the lone blue isle of Lundy.

"A steep and rocky lane wound down from my elevated position to Lee, where the road runs along the beach at the head of the cove. The tide was already far out, and revealed the weed-covered rocks, intersected by narrow channels, through which the little stream that flows down from the valley was pursuing its meandering way to the sea, after spreading itself over the sandy beach.

"I wended my way, over the rocks and through the matted sea-weeds that were crisped and blackened by their brief exposure to so burning a sun, to the coves that I had seen from the heights. The rugged cliffs rose perpendicularly like walls, inclosing the most charmingly smooth beaches, whose invitations to bathe in the clear wave I found irresistible.

"On either side  
The white sand sparkling to the sun; in front  
Great Ocean with its everlasting voice,  
As in perpetual jubilee, proclaimed  
The wonders of the Almighty."—SOUTHEY.

It was indeed a glorious scene: the majesty of the lofty precipices, their rugged sides leading the eye up to dark shadowy bowers among the ivy and bushes at their summits, combined with the bold outlines of the far-receding coast, and the expanse of the sea, to convey an impression of great grandeur; an impression unmarred by the presence of any object mean or little or common-place; for where I stood no trace of the proximity of man, of his buildings, or his cultivation, was visible, nothing but the works of God himself. It was one of those times and scenes in which probably most thinking persons have occasionally found themselves, in which we are unfit for study or for action, but in which the whole soul seems alive and awake to enjoyment."

We can afford to quote no more of Mr. Gosse's charming sketches of his rambles, but the following extract from the Appendix contains some remarks on marine vivaria which may suggest further experiments:—

"Marine animals and plants may be kept in health in glass vases of sea-water for a period of greater or less length according to circumstances, provided they be exposed to the influence of light. The oxygen given off by healthy vegetation under this stimulus, is sufficient for the support of a moderate amount of animal life; and this amount can be readily ascertained by experiment.

"But another element in the question soon intrudes itself. The Actiniae and other animals naturally throw off a mucous epidermis, and other excretions, which fall to the bottom of the vessel, or accumulate around them. The process of natural decay also continually goes on in the older fronds of the Algae. Here then there is a continually increasing deposit of organized matter in a state of decomposition; and after a while the presence of this substance becomes too manifest in the offensive odour which proceeds from the water, especially when it is disturbed, and in the feebleness, disease, and final death of the animals.

"In this difficulty chemistry came to my aid. Professor Schonbein had proved that phosphorus

possesses the curious property of causing water and hydrogen to unite so as to form a new compound, the peroxide of oxygen, which he calls *ozone*; and that ozone then immediately re-acts upon the phosphorus, and oxidates it, producing the peculiar light called phosphorescence. In like manner he had suggested that the luminosity of the sea is dependant on the particles of organic matter being brought into contact with the atmosphere. The phosphorus of this organic matter causes the union of the atmospheric oxygen with the water so as to form ozone, which immediately oxidates and destroys it.

"What then is necessary but the presentation of the water, so charged with organic matter, to the atmosphere in a minutely divided state? This I did, and found the objectionable qualities of the water at once removed, and my difficulties vanished. I even took sea-water, containing animal matter in suspension, so putrescent as to be highly offensive, and after passing it through the air in a slender stream a few times successively, the water was restored to purity.

"Another advantage is secured by the same process, viz., the aeration of the water. For though the requisite oxygen may be supplied by the agency of the plants alone, the mechanical admixture of the atmospheric air with the water by artificial aeration is highly conducive to the health and comfort of the animals, as is evident from their vigour and increased action under its stimulus."

The purity of the sea water in the Zoological Society's tank is maintained in the manner here described. Mr. Gosse is turning his attention to the construction of marine vivaria for the parlour or conservatory, and expects soon to complete an apparatus containing in itself the elements of its constant self-purification. A beautiful and instructive addition this will prove to the furniture of our houses, and likely to be as generally adopted as Mr. Ward's cases for the vegetable world.

After the foregoing extracts it would be needless to say much in commendation of the volume before us. Mr. Gosse is an acute observer and accurate describer of the facts of nature, and he has the happy art of presenting scientific knowledge in an attractive and popular form. Even over subjects of apparently dry detail there is thrown the charm of pleasing and poetical diction. Best of all, there is a consecration of literary and scientific attainments to the cause of religion, constant illustrations being pointed out of the Divine power, wisdom, and goodness. The work is quite a treatise on natural theology, all the more interesting and effective in that the statements do not appear as formal arguments, but come as the natural utterances of a genial and devout heart. The volume is embellished with numerous lithograph engravings of great beauty and accuracy. Some of them are printed in colours. The plates are twenty-eight in number, comprising about two hundred and forty figures of animals and their component parts, in many instances drawn with the aid of the microscope.

*The Lamp and the Lantern; or, Light for the Tent and the Traveller.* By James Hamilton, D.D. Nisbet and Co.

WHEN the library of Topham Beauclerk was sold by auction, Mr. Wilkes expressed to Dr. Johnson his surprise that it contained so large a number of volumes of sermons. "Why, sir," said Johnson, "you are to consider that sermons make a considerable branch of English literature; so that a library must be very imperfect if it has not a numerous collection of sermons." For a similar reason, apart from higher considerations, literary re-

viewers ought sometimes to deal with works of this class. Those sermons which are chiefly didactic or polemical it is our custom to pass by, but there are occasionally discourses of a different kind, the matter or the style of which attract literary as well as theological notice. Such is this series of discourses on the excellency of the Holy Scriptures, which appear under the title, adopted from the Hebrew Psalmist, of 'The Lamp and the Lantern.' Dr. Hamilton is one of the most remarkable sermon-writers of the present day. His discourses have little of the technicality of style, or formality of construction, which we usually associate with this species of composition. He deals little in argument and much in illustration. This is too often a mark of superficial preaching, but in Dr. Hamilton's sermons the profuse ornament covers a substantial body of doctrinal and practical truth. Of the peculiarities of his style here is a characteristic specimen. He is speaking of the variety and attractiveness of the manner, as well as the importance of the matter, of the inspired volume:—

"God made the present earth as the home of man; but had he meant it as a mere lodging, a world less beautiful would have served the purpose. There was no need for the carpet of verdure or the ceiling of blue; no need for the mountains, and cataracts, and forests; no need for the rainbow, no need for the flowers. A big, round island, half of it arable, and half of it pasture, with a clump of trees in one corner, and a magazine of fuel in another, might have held and fed ten millions of people; and a hundred islands, all made on the same pattern, big and round, might have held and fed the population of the globe. But man is something more than the animal which wants lodging and food. He has a spiritual nature, full of keen perceptions and deep sympathies. He has an eye for the sublime and the beautiful, and his kind Creator has provided man's abode with affluent materials for these nobler tastes. He has built Mont Blanc, and molten the lake in which its image sleeps. He has intoned Niagara's thunder, and has breathed the zephyr which sweeps its spray. He has shagged the steep with its cedars, and besprent the meadow with its king-cups and daisies. He has made it a world of fragrance and music,—a world of brightness and symmetry,—a world where the grand and the graceful, the awful and the lovely, rejoice together. In fashioning the home of man, the Creator had an eye to something more than convenience, and built not a barrack, but a palace,—not a union-workhouse, but an Alhambra; something which should not only be very comfortable, but very splendid and very fair; something which should inspire the soul of its inhabitant, and even draw forth the 'very good' of complacent Deity.

"God also made the Bible as the guide and oracle of man; but had he meant it as a mere lesson-book of duty, a volume less various and less attractive would have answered every end. A few plain paragraphs, announcing God's own character and his disposition towards us sinners here on earth, mentioning the provision which he has made for our future happiness, and indicating the different duties which he would have us perform,—a few simple sentences would have sufficed to tell what God is, and what he would have us to do. There was no need of the picturesque narrative and the majestic poem,—no need of the proverb, the story, and the psalm. A chapter of theology, and another of morals; a short account of the Incarnation and the great Atonement, and a few pages of rules and directions for the Christian life, might have contained the vital essence of Scripture, and have supplied us with a Bible of simplest meaning and smallest size. And in that case the Bible would have been consulted only by those rare and wistful spirits to whom the great Hereafter is a subject of anxiety, who are really anxious to know what God is, and how they themselves may please Him. But in



giving that Bible its Divine Author had regard to the mind of man. He knew that man has more curiosity than piety, more taste than sanctity; and that more persons are anxious to hear some new, or read some beautiful thing, than to read or hear about God and the Great Salvation. He knew that few would ever ask, What must I do to be saved? till they came in contact with the Bible itself; and, therefore, he made the Bible not only an instructive book, but an attractive one,—not only true, but enticing. He filled it with marvelous incident and engaging history; with sunny pictures from old-world scenery, and affecting anecdotes from the patriarch times. He replenished it with stately argument and thrilling verse, and sprinkled it over with sententious wisdom and proverbial pungency. He made it a book of lofty thoughts and noble images,—a book of heavenly doctrine, but withal of earthly adaptation. In preparing a guide to immortality, Infinite Wisdom gave not a dictionary, nor a grammar, but a Bible—a book which, in trying to catch the heart of man, should captivate his taste; and which, in transforming his affections, should also expand his intellect. The pearl is of great price; but even the casket is of exquisite beauty. The sword is of ethereal temper, and nothing cuts so keen as its double edge; but there are jewels on the hilt, and exquisite inlaying on the scabbard. The shekels are of the purest ore; but even the scrip which contains them is of a texture more curious than that the artists of earth could fashion it. The apples are gold; but even the basket is silver."

In a subsequent discourse, in which the philosophy of inspiration is admirably explained, we find the following account of the variety of style which marks the writings of the inspired penmen:—

"You know how opposite are the turns, and how various the temperaments, of different people, and how unequal their capacities. One has a logician's intellect, and delights in a dialectic subtilty. Another has a prompt intuition, and deprecates as so much bamboozlement every ingenious or protracted argument. Some have the ideal faculty so strong, that they never understand a proposition rightly till it sparkles as a sentiment; poet-wise, their eyes are in their apex; they cannot descry matters of fact and homely truths, which creep along the ground or travel on all-fours; but in order to arrest a vision so sublime as theirs, thoughts must spread the wings of metaphor, and soar into the zenith: whilst others are so prosaic, that they are offended at all imagery, and grudge the time it takes to translate a trope or figure. Some minds are concrete, and cannot understand a general statement till they see a particular example. Others are so abstract, that an illustration is an interruption, and an example a waste of time. Most men love history, and nearly all men live much in the future. Some minds are pensive, some are cheerful; some are ardent, and some are singularly phlegmatic. And had an angel penned the Bible, even though he could have condescended to the capacity of the lowliest reader, he could not have foreseen the turn and fitted the taste of every child of Adam. And had a mortal penman been employed, however versatile his talent, however many-faced his mind, he could not have made himself all things to all his brethren, nor produced styles enow to mirror the mental features of all mankind. In his wisdom and goodness the Most High has judged far better for our world; and using the agency of forty authors—transfusing through the peculiar tastes and temperaments of so many individuals (and these 'men of like passions with ourselves') the self-same truths, the Spirit of God has secured for the Bible universal adaptation. For the pensive, there is the dirge of Jeremiah and the cloud-shadowed drama of Job. For the sanguine and hopeful, there sounds the blithe voice and there beats the warm pulse of old Galilean Peter. And for the calm, the contemplative, the peacefully-loving, there spreads like a molten melody, or an abyssal joy, the page—sunny, ecstatic, boundless—of John the Divine. The most homely may find the matter of fact, the unvarnished

wisdom and plain sense, which is the chosen aliment of their sturdy understandings, in James's blunt reasonings; and the most heroic can ask no higher standard, no loftier feats, no consecration more intense, no spirituality more ethereal, than they will find in the Pauline Epistles. Those who love the sparkling aphorism and the sagacious paradox are provided with food convenient in the Proverbs; and for those whose poetic fancy craves a banquet more sublime, there is the dew of Hermon and Bozrah's red wine,—the tender freshness of pastoral hymns, and the purple tumult of triumphal psalms. And whilst the historian is borne back to ages so remote that grey tradition cannot recollect them, and athwart oblivious centuries, in nooks of brightness and in cases of light sees the patriarch groups, clear, vivid, and familiar as the household scenes of yesterday,—there is also a picture sketched for the explorers of the future. For whilst the Apocalyptic curtain slowly rises,—whilst the seven thunders shake its darkness palpable, and streaks of glory issue through its fringe of fire, the New Jerusalem comes down from heaven; and gazing on the pearly gates, and peaceful streets, and bowers of sanctity, our planet can scarce believe that she is gazing on herself,—that this is old Mother Earth grown young again,—that this vision of holiness and bliss is nothing more than Paradise restored—that 'new' but ancient 'earth in which dwelleth righteousness.'"

We give one more extract, in which a parallel is drawn between the character of Lord Chesterfield and Mr. Wilberforce:—

"The most polished Englishman of the last century was Philip Dormer Stanhope, the fourth Earl of Chesterfield. High-born and well-bred, clever, eloquent, and witty, and endowed with a large amount of natural amenity, he was bent on distinction. To dazzle his cotemporaries was the business of his life. He was a man who made his own model. From the speeches of Cicero, from the epigrams of Martial, from the saloons of Paris and Versailles, he gleaned the several ingredients of classic grace and modern refinement, and sought to combine them in the courtier, the statesman, and orator. He had no God. In the shrine where the Most High should be, there was a dim outline which looked very like a colossal Stanhope carrying a young Chesterfield in its arms; but, unless this mixture of self-idolatry and son-worship deserve the name, there was no religion in the man. He had his reward. At a levee, or in a drawing-room, he moved, 'the admired of all admirers.' Few made such formidable speeches in Parliament. None uttered so many brilliant sayings in society. He got ribbons, plaudits, diplomatic appointments, the smiles of the fair, the envy of his peers; everything except true human affection; everything except the approbation of God. Should any one wish to repeat the man, the mould is still extant. It will be found in Lord Chesterfield's 'Letters to his Son';—a book of which our great moralist said, in effect, that 'it inculcates the morals of a profligate with the manners of a dancing-master.' But before taking more trouble, it is well to know the result. At the close, he confessed that his life had been as joyless as it had been selfish and hollow: 'I have recently read Solomon with a kind of sympathetic feeling. I have been as wicked and as vain, though not as wise as he; but now I am old enough to feel the truth of his reflection, "All is vanity and vexation of spirit." Repartees sparkled on his dying lips, but all was dreary within, all was darkness a head. The fame for which he lived expired before himself; and now truth declines to write his epitaph, and virtue has no garlands for his grave.

"Still a boy, while this old worldling lay dying, William Wilberforce soon grew up, and the grace of God made him a Christian. That is, it taught him to live not to himself, but to the glory of God. It taught him to worship. It showed him that he was not his own proprietor; that he had no right to make his own enjoyment his chief pursuit; and that he must put all his faculties at God's disposal. In the Bible he found the model on which God would have him form his character. He studied it.

He prayed over it. He watched himself, and struggled with his evil tendencies. God's spirit strengthened him, and gave him wonderful self-conquest. Retaining all his natural elasticity, his wit, his bright fancy, his melodious voice and fluent speech,—his random hilarity was exchanged for conscientious kindness, and all his gifts of mind and station were devoutly laid at the feet of his Redeemer. With his pen he expounded to the highest classes that system of vital piety which Whitefield and Wesley had already preached to the populace; and carrying it to the dinner-tables of Clapham, and the evening assemblies of Piccadilly, many who fancied religion too severe in the sermons of Bishop Porteus or the strictures of Hannah More, confessed to its loveliness in the life of Mr. Wilberforce. Then, in his public career,—keeping himself on purpose 'pure,'—avoiding office, never using for personal ends the vast ascendancy over others which his fascinating goodness gave him, any more than the prestige of his mighty Yorkshire constituency; alike on the floor of St. Stephen's and on the platform of Freemasons' Tavern, he consecrated to every humane and Christian cause 'a persuasive and pathetic eloquence, chastened by a pure taste, varied by extensive information, enriched by classical allusion, sometimes elevated by the more sublime topics of holy writ—the thoughts and the spirit

"That touched Isaiah's hallowed lips with fire."

How much the individual advocacy of one so loved and honoured effected for Missionary and Bible Societies, it would be difficult to tell; but it is hardly a metaphor to say that Africa wept when he died. His country will never forget him: for although poets, warriors, and statesmen, in numbers repose under the roof of the Abbey, England recognizes no originality more illustrious, no heroism more patriotic, than his who led the campaign of humanity so long, and who achieved the abolition of the slave trade."

Thus, from history and literature, from science and art, this accomplished divine draws illustrations and enforces applications of sacred truth. When we say that the diction is often over-ornate, and the allusions sometimes ludicrously homely, we describe the chief faults of the writer's style. Although a good scholar and familiar with classic literature, there are occasional errors, as when it is said that "Demosthenes composed his most splendid oration to win the crown of eloquence." For the argument in hand it comes to the same thing, that it was the patriotism not the oratory of Demosthenes that was rewarded with the crown, but it is as well to be correct in such allusions, which are introduced for the sake of the classical scholar. The present work is likely to prove as popular as other volumes by the same author. An imagination so fertile and information so varied need not fear exhaustion, and we should be glad to find Dr. Hamilton more frequently publishing books which are at once pleasant in their style and profitable in their matter.

#### *The Bridesmaid, Count Stephen, and other Poems.* By Mary C. Hume. J. Chapman.

*Dos est magna parentum virtus*,—though we should hardly have anticipated that poetic imagination was part of the dowry possessed by a daughter of Joseph Hume. The accomplished authoress seems to have herself expected this obvious reflection, and gracefully refers to it in her dedicatory sonnet:—

"TO JOSEPH HUME, ESQ., M.P.

"It might on many lips provoke a smile,  
Father! that I to thee such offering  
Of Poesy and Fancy's flowers should bring;  
Nay, on thine own perchance; yet pause awhile,  
For just the tribute: Life-long hast thou wrought  
For that thou deemest good and true, brave strife  
/mid the stern realities of life

Waging unselfishly; I have but sought,  
In Fancy's realms, for flowers wherewith to wreath  
The brow of Truth, and set her beauties forth  
As I behold them; yet herein doth breathe  
A spirit kin to thine, and aught of worth  
Achieved by efforts thus inspired, must yield  
Witness to seed thou sowest in my field."

The first poem is on an ordinary enough theme, but the story is told with animation and feeling. A beautiful young bridesmaid at a marriage feast is described as clouded with sadness, which it appears arose from her having cherished a deep affection for the bridegroom. She in her turn is beloved by one worthy of all her affection. His suit, however, was hopeless while she was in the frame of mind thus described:—

"She gave her heart, unsued, unsought,  
In the firm faith affection taught,  
Return undoubting; nor could she  
Love calmly, wisely, tranquilly;  
For modern fashion's rigid rule,  
Which tutors women so to school  
Their hearts, that what they only feel  
No change of brow should e'er reveal;  
Love or to give or take again  
As prudence bids, nor own it pain;  
Ever to mask their bliss or woe  
Beneath one selfsame outward show,  
Nay, to forget what lurks below  
Till scarce they know what feelings mean,  
With her had worse than useless been.  
She learned to hide, but not control,  
Each impulse of her ardent soul;  
Feeling was passion in her breast,  
Untamed though outwardly repressed;  
But other lore such hearts require,  
A hidden is a quenchless fire.  
Thus when she loved, she breathed to none  
The new delight her heart had won,  
But revelled in its secret bliss,  
Till all beside grew cold in this.  
Unknowing that it periled aught,  
Its every dream, its every thought,  
Its all of love, her heart bestowed,  
Where no responsive feeling glowed.  
And when at length the bubble burst,  
And she had learned to grasp the worst,  
To comprehend the nothingness  
Of her long-cherished happiness,  
Exhausting passion left behind  
A stricken heart, a shattered mind;  
A heart which, stricken to the core,  
Seemed as it ne'er might blossom more;  
A mind which, reeling 'neath the blow  
That thus its every hope laid low,  
Of all its native strength and pride  
Enough alone retained, to hide  
The utter wreck, the deep despair,  
Which could no earthly comfort bear."

Time works wonders, and in spite of "the utter wreck and deep despair," we find at the close of the poem that she adopts the sensible procedure of accepting the man who was devoted to her:—

"'I have come once more,' he saith, 'to learn  
If a love like mine thy love may earn.  
If now, that the magic of passing years  
Hath soothed thine anguish and dried thy tears,  
And deep in the grave of the voiceless past,  
Hath buried all trace of the biting blast  
Of sorrow, which e'er thy young hopes cast  
A death-bligh; now, that the meanings deep,  
In the outer hush of life which sleep  
Hidden, (until the soul awakes  
To their priceless worth, and arising shakes  
From her wings the dream-dew of early youth,) Unseal their springs of eternal truth  
To thy wakened spirit's unsealed eyes;  
Now, that thy heart hath learned to rise  
O'er fleeting sorrows, content, the end  
Unto which all joy and sorrow tend,  
To keep ever in view unwaveringly;  
Now, that between us, threateningly,  
No gulf of jarring hopes or aims  
Opens, to bar the sacred claims  
Of confidence and sympathy,—  
Which, alone, can weave the lasting tie,  
That shall bind two hearts in one, nor yet  
Cause either its freedom to forget;—  
If, now, thou wilt lay thy hand in mine,  
Thy heart to the heart which so long to thine  
Hath throbbled with as pure and true a love,  
As may witness on earth to love's heaven above;  
If thou in my joys, as I in thine,  
While I in thy sorrows, as thou in mine,  
Wilt henceforth share, till to one heart grown  
We know but one sorrow and joy alone,  
I will guard thy steps through life to death  
With undying love; with my latest breath  
I will breathe thy name, whether, gone before,  
Thy spirit woos mine to the heavenly shore,  
Or mine be destined to point thy way  
To the realms of pure and perfect day.  
And when life's journey, with patient feet,  
We both have ended, and yonder meet,

The joys to which blessed spirits wake  
Shall be doubly precious, for thy dear sake!  
If this may not be—I must love thee still,  
For mine is a love no change can chill!"

"She cannot speak, she cannot stir,  
For the spell of his glance which bindeth her;  
She cannot stir, she cannot speak,  
But a crimson flush on her quivering cheek  
Doth come and go, in her deep emotion,  
As sunset hues on the heaving ocean.  
And the tear-dew bright, in her eye erewhile  
Which gathered beneath the moonbeam's smile,  
Trembles, and rises, and overflows,  
As dew from the cup of the new-blown rose,  
When stirred to tremble, and yet rejoice,  
At sound of the wooing breeze's voice.  
No word she speaketh, but in her eye  
Eloquent answer, though mute, doth lie;  
And he whispereth,—'Mine!'—and she saith  
not,—'Nay,'

Nor draws from his circling arm away,  
And the queen-like head which, at first in pride,  
And then in patience, hath learned to bide,  
Unbending, though weary full oft, the tide  
Of earth's chance and change, on his stalwart breast  
Now findeth meet shelter and fitting rest;  
And waves of trouble henceforth may rise,  
And adverse breezes sweep changeable skies,  
But winds and waves, along life's rude shore,  
That head, love-sheltered, shall scarce no more!"

Hearts are rarely broken irrecoverably, though few will assent to the cool philosophy of Coleridge, who, describing his early passion, and his first absence from his innamorata, said "Love is a local anguish. At fifty miles' distance I feel more comfortable." It was by a longer and nobler schooling than this that the bridesmaid recovered her reason and her feelings. The poetic curtain drops amidst universal satisfaction. Among the miscellaneous pieces there are some hymns, and other religious poems, of the pious feeling and sound wisdom of which the following stanzas may serve as a specimen. The first part of the poem expresses the restlessness of a spirit under earthly changes and trials, commencing thus:—

"Oh! that to me were given  
The swift wings of the dove!  
My path below is dreary,  
And I, alas! am weary;  
It were not so above!  
My drooping head, a tranquil rest,  
A soothing balm, mine aching breast  
Might surely find, in Heaven!"

After the complaint comes the consolation:

"Oh! hush thy thankless yearning  
Joys, now withheld, to share;  
Awhile from these estranged,  
'Tis that thyself art changed,  
Not His all-bounteous care,  
The even tenor of whose ways  
Nor variableness betrays,  
Nor shadow, even, of turning.  
'The cup 'our Father' giveth,  
Wouldst then refuse to drink?  
Bitter the draught of healing,—  
Thy deeper need revealing,—  
And therefore wouldst thou shrink?  
Oh! man, thy days a span at best,  
Know'st better what shall make them blest,  
Than He who ever liveth?"

"Oh! wherefore in believing  
Thus slow, and hard of heart?  
Trust in his His love professing,  
How deem'st thou aught, a blessing,  
That Love doth not impart?  
Of every bliss,—wer't bliss to thee,—  
He in the gift more prompt would be,  
Than thou in the receiving!  
'Believe but this, and never  
Wilt then arraign thy lot;  
But if true love have stirred thee,  
Up! for the journey gird thee!  
And faint and weary not,  
Till in the vine and fig-tree's shade,  
Where doubt nor distance makes afraid,  
Ye meet,—to rest for ever!"

"Go then, and gently o'er thee  
The peace thou crav'st be shed!  
It lies not in the blending  
Of joy thy steps attending,  
Nor in what paths they tread;  
But in the treading onward still  
The path appointed; which His will  
Makes ever plain before thee."

The principles are here all good, but in other poems there is a spirit of mystic allegorizing, which is carried farther than sound

sense can approve. For instance, the familiar scripture parable of the unjust judge is thus interpreted in a note:—

"The unjust judge is held to signify a false religious doctrine; the widow, an earnest affection of goodness in the soul, desiring to conquer its evil tendencies, signified by the enemy of whom she desired to be avenged. The eventual consent of the judge to avenge her, 'lest by her continual coming she weary me,' signifies (according to the same view) that even false religious doctrines, embraced from a sincere desire of amendment of life, may accomplish this desire—as has been seen in the case of almost all the religious errors ever embraced, there having been good men in all sects—otherwise, being utterly useless, they would be rejected."

According to the writer the spiritual significations of the Divine word are not sufficiently attended to, and her reference elsewhere to Swedenborg betrays a tendency to becloud with a mystic pietism the plain statements and practical lessons of revealed truth. But the discussion of this matter would be out of place, and we are content with giving a word of warning as to this spiritualizing tendency. In the closing poem, 'The Journey of Life,' there is more scope for this philosophical ingenuity, and the well-sustained allegory conveys some striking and useful lessons.

*The Fall of the Roman Republic. A Short History of the Last Century of the Commonwealth.* By Charles Merivale, B.D. Longman and Co.

IN this volume Mr. Merivale has given a sketch of the most stirring and interesting century of Roman history. Carthage had fallen, Greece was conquered, and the Commonwealth had already attained a power in the world which marked its destiny as the fourth universal empire. But along with this external aggrandizement there were signs of internal decay. "With the death of Cato the Censor (A.U. 605)," Mr. Merivale remarks, "the last link was snapped which connected the existing generation of Roman statesmen with the traditions of simplicity and moderation derived from the early Commonwealth." The agitation of the Sempronian laws betrayed the existence of deep evils in the social state. The present narrative opens with the story of the Gracchi (A.U. 617, B.C. 137.) A clear and able account is given of the political commotions and social troubles of this critical period. The character and proceedings of the two brothers are described in great detail. The general principles of their action appear in a short paragraph in which their spirit is contrasted:—

"The Italian States had refrained from succouring their comrades in their extremity, and the senate had failed to connect any other of their allies with this abortive revolt. Convinced, however, that a single petty community would not have ventured on such a step without instigators and accomplices, it looked for the real promoters of the rebellion in Rome itself. It pretended to discover in C. Gracchus the real author of the revolt, and caused him to be impeached for treason. This was a rash move. Caius had acquired popularity with the soldiers in his late office; he had displayed courage and conduct in the field; and he had devoted himself to the comforts of his comrades in arms. The citizens had already screened him from a petty charge of having quitted his duties, and repaired to Rome, without his commander's permission. When, therefore, the graver accusation was advanced against him, his eloquence, which was bold and manly, fell upon favourable

ears. Not only was he acquitted with acclamations, but his suit for the tribunate was crowned with success. The influence of the nobles indeed effected that he should be elected fourth instead of first on the list; but, once installed on the tribunitian bench, his zeal, activity, and popular manners, soon gave him a virtual pre-eminence above all his colleagues. More ambitious than his brother, he was far less scrupulous in the choice of his means. Coming second to the contest, he had already had his warnings, and he had determined to profit by them. Tiberius, firm in his own integrity and the justice of his views, had ventured to attack the senate, without first securing the people on his own side. Caius resolved to secure his own position in the first instance. Tiberius had for his object, to better the condition of the poorer classes. Caius aimed at a reconstruction of the national polity. His mother Cornelia, terrified by the slaughter of one of her sons, urged him, it is said, to abstain from the fruitless attempt. But a voice sounded in his ears, that the destiny of both the Gracchi was the same, to fight and die for the people; and with the mixed feelings of vengeance, of indignation, of patriotism, and of ambition, he trode boldly and resolutely in the bloody footsteps of his brother's career."

Of the debate in the Senate, on the punishment of the accomplices in Catiline's conspiracy, an animated report is given:—

"The fathers met in the Temple of Concord, the ground-plan of which may yet be traced under the brow of the Capitoline, and from the memorials still preserved to us, we may picture to ourselves a vivid representation of the debate which followed. While strong patrols traversed the streets, and the knights armed and in great multitudes surrounded the place of assembly, the consul-designate, Silanus, invited first to deliver his opinion, pronounced boldly for death. All the consulars, successively, followed on the same side. It seemed as if the meeting would have been unanimous, for Crassus had absented himself, and Caesar, it might be thought, conscious of his own complicity or at least of the suspicions to which he was subjected, would desire to efface the stigma in the blood of the convicted traitors. But he, taking counsel only of his own boldness and spirit, of the claims of his party, and indeed of his own natural clemency, declared in a speech of remarkable power, for perpetual imprisonment, and with confiscation. He allowed indeed that the culprits were justly liable to the extreme penalty; but to free and high-minded men, degradation, he contended, was worse than death, which he dared to characterise as mere oblivion. This speech made a great impression upon the assembly. Those who were next asked their opinion, voted one after the other with Caesar. Among them was Quintus Cicero, the consul's own brother; and Silanus himself thought fit to explain away the sentiments he had just delivered in accordance with the last speaker. Cicero then rose to stem the current, and demonstrated with all his eloquence the impossibility of stopping at the point recommended by Caesar after having gone so far, and both offended and alarmed so many dangerous enemies. But this appeal to the fears of the assembly rather increased than allayed their anxiety to escape from the immediate responsibility. Cicero's real influence with them was never great. A master in the forum, he was only a minister in the senate. There he was too generally regarded as a mere bustling politician, who used the means put into his hands by others for his own glory or advancement. The senators would have little heeded his counsel, had it not been reinforced by an energetic speech from Cato, who pronounced for the execution of the criminals in a tone of deep conviction and unflinching courage. Once more the audience was swayed round to the side of severity, and Cato's influence was openly avowed by the language of the fatal decree itself, which was expressed in his own words. The knights who waited impatiently for the result, were furious at the obstruction Caesar had thrown in the way of justice, and when he appeared on the steps of the

temple, could hardly be restrained from assassinating him. Some of the younger senators carried him off in their arms, and among them C. Scribonius Curio was conspicuous for his spirit and courage.

"The knights, it was said, had looked to Cicero for the signal to consummate their vengeance; but the consul had turned away. He was giving orders for the immediate execution of the senate's decree, in order to prevent the interference of the tribunes, or a rescue by main force. He went in person to the house where Lentulus was detained on the Palatine, and brought him to the Tullianum, the prison under the Capitol, whither the prætors at the same time conducted the other criminals. The executioners were at hand. Lentulus was strangled first, and Cethegus, Gabinius, Statilius, and Ceparius suffered the same fate successively. When the consul, who had attended to the last, traversed the forum on his route homeward, he exclaimed to the crowds through which he made his way, '*They have lived,*' and the people shuddered in silence."

Among the individual portraits, one of the best is that of Julius Cæsar—

"Of all the men that live in history, there is none perhaps whom most of us would so much wish to have seen as the great Julius Cæsar. Tall in stature, and of commanding aspect, delicate in feature and graceful in form, we picture him to ourselves as not less conspicuous for the beauty of his person than for the eminence of his genius. But who can rest satisfied with realizing to his imagination the mere outline of the hero's figure, if he fail to obtain a glimpse of the expression which informs it with mind and character? It is not enough to read that Cæsar's complexion was pale and fair, his eyes dark and piercing, or to scan on busts and medals the ample volume of his forehead, and the haughty curve of his nose. These monuments present us, not without some variety of lineaments, the signs of his intellectual energy and moral power; but they fail to mark the generous kindling of his glance, and the fascination of his smile. There was in Cæsar, we are told, a charm of manner and address which captivated all beholders. Cato smiled on the man whose treasons he denounced; Brutus admired and Cicero loved him. Strange that a being whose public career was so selfish and unfeeling, should have proved himself the most merciful to his enemies, the most considerate to his friends, the most magnanimous to those who wronged him, of all his countrymen. Upon Cæsar's political sins I need not express any judgment; they are patent on the face of history; but to the humanity of our times the merit of his clemency is not equally obvious: I may fairly urge the reader once more to contrast it with what he has read, and has yet to read, in the pages before him. If in private life Cæsar's amours and gallantries exceeded even the licence of his time, what else, the Romans might have asked, was to be expected of the comeliest child of Venus herself? If charges still more scandalous were freely advanced against him, the earnestness with which he repelled them, in an age disgracefully indulgent to the worst iniquities, bespeaks perhaps the dignity of conscious innocence, and the authority on which they rest is at least avowedly worthless.

"But Cæsar has other claims on history besides that of political pre-eminence; and if the plan of this narrative admitted a review of the intellectual development of his times, his name would stand conspicuous in more than one department of literary composition. As the historian of his own exploits, he was reputed second to no writer of his class who had then arisen in Rome; as an orator to none perhaps but Cicero. He wrote on grammar; he wrote on augury and astronomy; he wrote tragedies, and verses of society; he wrote a satire in prose which he called his *Anti-Cato*. But while other illustrious men have been celebrated for their excellence in some one department of genius, the concurrent voice of antiquity averred that Cæsar was excellent in all. '*He had genius,*' says Cicero, '*understanding, memory, taste, reflection, indus-*

try, and exactness.' '*He was great,*' repeats a modern writer, '*in everything he undertook,—as a captain, a statesman, a lawgiver, a jurist, an orator, a poet, an historian, a grammarian, a mathematician, and an architect.*' And as if to complete the picture of the most perfect specimen of human ability, we are assured that in all the exercises of the camp his skill and vigour were not less conspicuous. He fought at the most perilous moments in the ranks of his soldiers; he could manage his charger without the use of reins, and he saved his life at Alexandria by his expertness as a swimmer."

As a pendant to this, here is the portrait of Pompey at his entrance on public life, his estimate of whom we consider unjustly severe:—

"Cnaus Pompeius was just thirty years of age, but his rise to public station had been unprecedentedly early. As the son of Pompeius Strabo, a noted captain in the late wars, he had made his cradle in the camp, and his transcendent military genius was fostered by an early familiarity with the service to which he was devoted. The father had been a soldier of fortune, and the son resolved from his earliest years to raise himself to eminence by the warm attachment of his soldiers. He carried over an army to Sulla's side at a critical moment of the civil wars, and he continued to maintain himself at its head, while he confirmed it in allegiance to his own person. At the dictator's bidding he led it against the Marian partisans in the Cisalpine, in Africa, and in Spain. Victorious over the foes of the senate, he followed without remorse his chief's example of cruelty to the vanquished. He put to death a Carbo in Sicily, and a Domitius in Africa. He 'licked the sword of Sulla' till he thirsted himself for blood. Yet Pompeius was not a mere rude soldier. He studied literature, and exercised himself in speaking. He was neither covetous nor licentious, but practised cheerfully, and without austerity, the moral virtues, the appearance of which he studiously preserved. The accounts indeed we have received of his manners and deportment are not always consistent: even the same writers represent him sometimes as affable and benign, at others as haughty and morose. There can be no doubt however that he was a deep dissembler; and that, if he knew how to assume the semblance of kindness and urbanity, he was destitute of the real generosity which makes and retains friends. Pompeius was feared by all, admired by some, trusted by few, and loved by none. Sulla was early jealous of his fame and popularity. The good fortune on which he plumed himself with superstitious awe, he saw reflected in the career of his successful lieutenant, and he sought perhaps to attach a share of that fortune to himself by introducing him into his family by marriage with his step-daughter. Pompeius, as we have seen, coldly repudiated his consort Antistia to obtain the advantage of this new alliance. Nevertheless Sulla continued to distrust him, and after his victory over Domitius, and his African ally Hiarbas, haughtily commanded him to disband his troops. The legions threatened to revolt, but Pompeius prevailed on them to refrain from violence, while he repaired himself alone to Rome. The whole city came out to meet him, and Sulla himself was constrained to lead the procession, and hail the youthful conqueror by the name of *Magnus*, the Great. When he demanded a triumph, he who was not yet even a senator, Sulla hesitated. '*Let him beware,*' exclaimed the presumptuous aspirant, '*lest the rising sun have more worshippers than the setting.*' '*Let him triumph,*' murmured Sulla; '*let him have his triumph.*' Pompeius himself was not more pleased at his success than the people who shouted around him. The nobles, who had hitherto claimed the young soldier for their own favourite, scowled at these demonstrations of popular enthusiasm, which might serve, they feared, to withdraw him from their interests."

Mr. Merivale's book gives more information as to the social and domestic life of the Romans than is usual in treatises on classical



history. Here is an account of the state of the city at the time of Catiline's conspiracy:—

"The long career of conquest which Rome had enjoyed had tended to throw all her noblest energies into the sole profession of arms, which is naturally inclined above all others to measure excellence by success, and to confound virtue with valour. When the Roman returned from the wars for a short breathing-time to his own country, he beheld few objects around him which were calculated to allay the fever of his excited imagination. His pride was fed by trophies and triumphs, by the retinue of captive slaves which attended him, by the spoils of conquered palaces which decorated his home. In the intervals of danger and rapine few cared to yield themselves to the rapid enjoyments of taste and literature, or could refrain from ridiculing the arts which had failed to save Greece from subjugation. The poets, historians, and philosophers of Rome were few in number, and exercised but a transient influence on a small circle of admirers. Nor were the habits of civil life such as to soften the brutal manners of the camp. The Romans knew nothing of the relations of modern society, in which the sexes mutually encourage each other in the virtues appropriate to each, and where ranks and classes mingle unaffectedly together under the shelter of a common civilization. The Romans lived at first in castles, afterwards in parties: even in the public places there was little fusion or intercourse of ranks, while at home they domineered over their clients as patrons, their slaves as masters, their wives and children as husbands and fathers. The instruction indeed of boyhood was general, at least in the upper ranks, but it was imparted by slaves, who corrupted the temper of their pupils far more than they improved their understanding; and when, already exhausted by premature indulgence, they were married still young from motives of convenience, they were found incapable of guiding and elevating their still more neglected consorts. The women were never associated in their husbands' occupations, knew little of their affairs, and were less closely attached to their interests than even their bondmen. They seldom partook of their recreations, which accordingly degenerated for the most part into debauches. Systematically deprived of instruction, the Roman matron was taught indeed to vaunt her ignorance as a virtue. If in the seventh century those Sabine housewives were no longer to be found, who shut themselves up in their apartments and spun wool among their handmaids, yet to exercise their intellects or cultivate their tastes passed almost for a crime. To know Greek and Latin books, to sing and dance, to make verses, to please with conversation, these, in the opinion of the historian Sallust, were no better than seductive fascinations, such as formed the charm and fixed the price of the courtesan. Rarely therefore did any woman break through this mental bondage, without losing in character what she gained in intellect and attraction. In either case she was almost equally despised. The men's indifference to the conduct of their spouses is a frightful feature in the social aspect of the times. Their language, it has been observed, had no word to express the sentiment of jealousy. The laws which gave them such facility of divorce, show how little regard they had for the dearest interests of the married state; just as their common practice of adoption proves the weakness among them of the paternal sentiment.

"Thus did the morose and haughty Roman stand isolated and alone in the centre of his family and of society around him; nor did he strive to exalt his moral nature by sympathy with the divinity above him. A century indeed had scarcely elapsed since Polybius had lauded the character of the Romans for the earnestness of its religious sentiment. Undoubtedly the moral sanctions of religion had at that time been strongly felt: the gods were actually regarded as the avengers of crime and the patrons of virtue. Even then however the principle of setting up the Deity as a model for imitation, which alone is efficacious for elevating and purifying the soul, was unknown or disregarded. The coarse and sensuous pagans of Greece

and Rome gloated over the wretched stories of lust and violence ascribed to the objects of their worship, and if they feared their power, never dreamed of adoring their goodness or their justice. Their religious practices therefore were not moral actions, but merely adopted as charms to preserve them from the caprice or ill-nature of their divinities. From this debasing superstition even their strongest intellects could not wholly release themselves, while in the seventh century the vulgar at least were as devoutly addicted to it as at any former period. Indeed the general relaxation of positive belief in the minds of the educated class was accompanied, as is not unfrequently the case, by still more grovelling prostration on the part of the ignorant multitude."

We have quoted enough to show the spirit and style of Mr. Merivale's book. As a book for educational use, it is superior to anything that has yet been written on that period of Roman history. References to authorities are not given, as this would have too much enlarged and complicated the work. But as in his preface Mr. Merivale refers to the French Professor Duruy's '*Histoire des Romains*,' some acknowledgment might have been also made of the masterly and philosophical work of Professor Ferguson, '*On the Progress and Termination of the Roman Republic*,' in which the same period of history is discussed. Ferguson was the predecessor of Dugald Stewart in the chair of Moral Philosophy at Edinburgh, and was one of the men of genius and learning by whom the University of the northern capital attained its high reputation. Those who wish more fully to study the history, and especially the political philosophy, of the last days of the Roman Commonwealth, we recommend to pass from the short sketches of Merivale to the copious disquisitions of Ferguson.

*The Industrial Movement in Ireland as Illustrated by the National Exhibition of 1852.*  
By John Francis Maguire, M.P., Mayor of Cork. Cork: O'Brien. London: Simpkin, Marshall, and Co.

Of the Irish Industrial Exhibition at Cork, in 1852, this is an important and appropriate memorial. Mr. Maguire, who during the period in question discharged the arduous and varied duties of a public journalist, member of parliament, and mayor of the city, took a prominent part in the management of the Exhibition. At the request of the executive committee, of which he was an active member, he delivered a lecture on the origin of the movement, the objects contemplated by its promoters, and the benefits that might be fairly expected to result from it. He rightly considers "such a display of Irish genius, Irish capacity, Irish energy, and Irish improveability" to be worthy of more permanent record, and the result is the present volume. Much of the matter consists of catalogues and descriptions of the objects exhibited, but there are many subjects introduced of more general interest, as bearing on the condition and prospects of Irish national industry. Thus in the account of the philosophical instruments exhibited by Bennett, and by Hunt of Cork, Mr. Maguire introduces the following remarks on the prejudice among Irishmen against workmen of their own country:—

"Although there is no small amount of engineering done in Ireland, principally caused by the construction of railways, still the absurd prejudice is so great—of Irishmen against Irishmen—that it is with difficulty, in many instances, that an Irish

maker of the necessary scientific apparatus can secure sale for the product of his mechanical skill and practical science. Even the rawest boy, who has just got his first job on a railway, disdains the work of a man who has ten times his knowledge, and will not be satisfied unless he procures his dumpy and his levelling staff from Mr. So-and-So of London; and even professors in Irish colleges and public schools, who should be the very first to promote the manufacture of scientific apparatus, in their own country, make it imperative on their pupils to order their instruments from London. I have heard a reason given by a customer of a local manufacturer for ordering, through him, a London-made article, and refusing to purchase one which the Cork maker offered at considerably less than the London price, and which he was willing to submit to any possible test—"Oh, I would not buy one of yours at all; for if I were done with it to-morrow, I could get nothing for it—the name would destroy its value." Allowing this true anecdote to tell its own tale, I may merely remark, that the man who could produce such an instrument as the theodolite exhibited by Mr. Hunt, could make anything in the mathematical line; and that all that such a man wants, to extend his trade, and add to the employment of the country, is fair play, and no favour. Test his work after what fashion you please, and judge him by the result; but do not unjustly condemn him to be the victim of a false and degrading prejudice; do not deem your own countryman to a hard struggle against discouragement and the tax-collector, while you make the fortunes of strangers.

"When alluding to the existence of a prejudice which is more or less experienced by almost every class engaged in trade in this country, I would not be understood as saying that it is universal; on the contrary, I am aware that there are many men in this city and elsewhere, eminent for their intelligence and experience, who prefer purchasing all their nautical or mathematical instruments from the home manufacturer, with whose skill and ability they are well acquainted, to sending their orders to London; and, more than that, who would rather see the Irish name on the article which they purchase, than any English name—not from a feeling of false patriotism, but because they can more certainly rely on the better finish and greater accuracy of the native work. I have only done the merest justice to Mr. Hunt, in noticing the exquisite finish of his work, especially the theodolite and circular protractor, the latter of which might be placed next to any that ever came from the hand of man; but it is equally due to Mr. Bennett to say, that he has himself made several improvements in his instruments, which practical men think of the highest value; and that he has also invented tools for facilitating some of the processes of manufacture, which are not in use, or even known, in English shops.

"It is a fact, curious but true, that the best compasses, almost in the world, are made in three places—Cork, Liverpool, and Trieste; and that the compasses of this city are highly prized and largely purchased by those masters of foreign vessels which the important change in the commercial laws has of late years brought to our harbour. These are, almost invariably, men of a cultivated class, who are willing to make considerable personal sacrifices in order to procure the most serviceable instruments for the safe navigation of their ships."

This prejudice is a hindrance to Irish improvement, for which the 'Saxons' can have no blame, and we trust that the remarks of Mr. Maguire may aid in its removal. The part of the volume with which we have been most interested is that which describes the progress made in native female industry. After giving an account of a great number of schools founded and supported either by public or private benevolence, the author presents some general reflections suggested by the promising aspect of this industrial activity:—

"It would be a sad thing, indeed, to contemplate the possibility of this fair promise being

blighted by failure,—of all these bright hopes terminating in blank disappointment. The reader will naturally ask himself—'Is this of which I read a mere momentary spurt? or, has it the elements, not of temporary success, but of lasting endurance?' I should be sorry to regard the industrial movement of the present day, a few features only of which I have been able to describe, as a thing which would soon melt away, like frost-work in the morning sun, and leave the same cheerless nakedness as before. I do not regard it in this light; and these are, briefly, my reasons for not doing so:—

"In the first place, the movement has been one of steady though rapid growth; in the second, there is a market already established equal to any present capability of supply; in the third, that market is susceptible of almost limitless expansion; in the fourth, should the demand for any particular article cease, and be succeeded by a demand for another, the trained dexterity that is equal to the supply in the one case, is equal to it in the other; in the fifth, the greater abundance and cheapness of labour in this country will make it the interest of the seller to supply himself at this side of the channel; and, in the sixth, the young are being taught habits of industry and a love of independence, which will not allow them easily, if at all, to relapse into that fatal torpidity and listlessness which takes poverty as a matter of certainty, and idleness as a decree of fate. Those who have quaffed from the pure well-spring of Hope, will not willingly go back to drink of the stagnant waters of Despair.

"I have been most particularly anxious to know whether the present show of industrial life was real or fallacious, spasmodic or healthful; and, to the minutest inquiries, the reply has been all that I could wish, and more than I dared to anticipate.

"I find that the tone of the public mind has been most beneficially influenced by what has been already done; and that a belief in the possibility of national salvation by individual energy is steadily dispelling that feeling of apathy which misery had engendered, and which the absence, hitherto, of all remuneration for industry went far to justify. I have given instances where old women, with stiff and wrinkled fingers, and, perhaps, dulled faculties, resolutely devoted themselves to the hard task of learning to knit, to net, and to sew;—how, in spite of age, infirmity, and stiffened fingers, and obtuse faculties, they succeeded in overcoming the tremendous difficulties of a late effort;—and how, ere long, they tasted the sweet, though hard-earned bread of independence. I see, in facts such as these, an indication of moral change which is in the highest degree hopeful.

"My limits of reference have been necessarily confined—the catalogue of the National Exhibition presenting a boundary and a barrier beyond which I could not well step; but had we had a larger contribution from the country generally, I could have conducted the reader from east to west, and from north to south, and shown the school established, the training carried on, the seeds of industry sown in the fruitful soil of the mind and heart of youth; I could have told how the fancy work of the poor female children of the wilds of Clare and Connemara was estimated in the markets of Manchester and London; and how, through the enterprise of Irish ladies, and the aid of English houses, the shops of New York, Boston, and Philadelphia, were now disposing of the rarest products of the Irish needle. I have been assured, by perhaps the most competent authorities—those intelligent gentlemen who travel for the great houses of this city—that they have seen, with equal surprise and delight, in the various markets of England to which their business called them, beautiful work from nearly every district of the South and West of Ireland, intended either for home sale or foreign exportation.

"Hitherto, the movement has been, to a certain extent, one of charity and sympathy; but henceforward it must be of a strictly commercial character, so far as the English market is concerned; nor will the great original objects be injured, but rather

the more promoted, by the change. Punctuality, energy, steadiness, and fair dealing, are the best means of imparting a permanent character to that which had its first origin in the warm impulses of the heart, and realising those results which charity and patriotism had dared to anticipate. But there must be no lagging behind, or halting by the way-side; the course must be onwards, or backwards—and who, with a heart in his bosom, will consent that it shall be the latter? Let Industry be preached to the Irish people, as a new gospel—by word, by example, by influence—so that it may reach the hearts and understandings of young and old, and drive into the sea the twin devils of Idleness and Mendicancy, which have too long possessed a noble but afflicted nation. Wherever children are gathered together, whether it be in school or workshop, there let habits of usefulness be taught, and notions of independence be inculcated; and so surely as those whose position and rank confer upon them authority and influence, feel it a matter of interest, as well as a duty of conscience, to provide employment for those whose destiny, notwithstanding difference of fortune and condition, is yet bound up with theirs, so surely will a great and lasting good be accomplished."

We cordially wish that the worthy mayor's aspirations for the improvement of his country may be gratified, and that the sanguine anticipations formed from the display of industry at Cork in 1852, may be amply confirmed and extended by the results of the National Exhibition in Dublin in 1853.

#### NOTICES.

*Tamerton Church Tower, and other Poems.* By Coventry Patmore. Pickering.

The chief poem in this collection is a doleful tale, told in ballad metre, the substance of which may be gathered from a few of the stanzas. The story thus commences:—

"The hazy East hot noon did bode;  
Our horses snuff'd the dawn;  
We made ten Cornish miles of road,  
Before the dew was gone.

"We left the Church at Tamerton  
In gloomy western air;  
To greet the day we gallop'd on,  
A merry-minded pair.

"We clomb the hill where Lanson's Keep  
Fronts Dartmoor's distant ridge;  
Thence trotted South; walk'd down the steep  
That slants to Gresson Bridge;

"And paused awhile, where Tamar waits,  
In many a shining coil,  
And teeming Devon separates  
From Cornwall's sorry soil.

"Our English skies contain'd, that Spring,  
A Caribbean sun;  
The singing birds forgot to sing,  
The rivulets to run.

"For three days past, the skies had frown'd,  
Obscur'd with blighting shades,  
That only mock'd the thirsty ground  
And unrejoicing glades.

"To-day, before the noon was nigh,  
Bright-skirted vapours grew,  
And on the sky hung languidly;  
The sky was languid too."

In some of the descriptions there are good touches:—

"A western bank of even cloud  
Suck'd in the sultry disk;  
Bright racks look'd on, a fiery crowd,  
To seamen boding risk;

"The late crow wing'd his silent way  
Across the shadowy East;  
The great danced out his little day,  
His ceaseless singing ceased;

"Along the dim horizon round  
Fled faint electric fires;  
Blue glow-worms lit the fresher ground  
By moisture-harboured briers;

"Far northward twinkled lonely lights,  
The peopled vales among;  
In front, between the gaping heights,  
The mystic ocean hung.

"Our weary spirits flagg'd beneath  
The still and loaded air;  
We left behind the freer heath,  
A moody-minded pair."

Frank and his companion Blanche are in a boat, and are overtaken by a storm:—

"Above us, heated fields of mist  
Precipitated cloud:  
For shore we pull'd; the swift keel hiss'd;  
Above us, grew the shroud.

"The pale gull flap'd the stagnant air;  
The thunder-drop fell straight;  
The first wind lifted Blanche's hair;  
Looking to me she sate.

"Across the mighty mirror crept,  
In dark'ning blasts, the squall;  
And round our terror lightly leapt  
Mad wavelets, many and small.

"The oars cast by, convuls'd out flew  
Our perilous hope the sail:  
None spoke: all watch'd the waves, that grew  
Under the splashing hail.

"With urgent hearts and useless hands,  
We sate and saw them rise,  
Coursing to shore in gloomy bands,  
Below the appalling skies.

"The wrathful thunder scared the deeps;  
And where, upon our wake,  
The sea got up in ghastly heaps,  
White lines of lightning stroke.

"On, on, with fainting hope we fled,  
Hard-hunted by the grave:  
Slow sped 'd it, though like wind we sped  
Over the shoudering wave.

"In front swift rose the crags, where still  
A storm of sunshine pour'd:  
At last, beneath the southern hill,  
The dangerous breakers roar'd.

"O, bolt foreseen before it burst!  
O, chastening hard to bear!  
O, cup of sweetness quite revers'd,  
And turn'd to void despair!

"Blanche in fear swooning, I let go  
The helm: we struck the ground:  
The sea fell in from stern to prow,  
And Blanche, my Bride, was drown'd."

The moral of the tale is given in the closing verses:—

"I sat, until the first white star  
Appear'd, with dewy rays,  
And the fair moon began to bar  
With shadows all the ways.

"O, well is thee, whate'er thou art,  
And happy shalt thou be,  
If thou hast known, within thy heart,  
The peace that came to me.

"O, well is thee, if aught shall win  
Thy spirit to confess,  
God proffers all, 'twere grievous sin  
To live content in less!

"I mounted, now, my patient nag;  
And scaled the easy steep;  
And soon beheld the quiet flag  
On Lanson's solemn Keep.

"And now, when as the waking lights  
Bespoke the valley'd Town,  
A child o'ertook me, on the heights,  
In cap and russet gown.

"It was an alms-taught scholar trim,  
Who, on her happy way,  
Sang to herself the morrow's hymn;  
For this was Saturday.

"St. Stephen, stoned, nor grieved nor groan'd:  
'Twas all for his good gain;  
For Christ him blest, till he confess'd  
A sweet content in pain.

"Then Christ his cross is no way loss,  
But even a present boon:  
Of his dear blood fair shines a flood  
On heaven's eternal noon."

"My sight grew moist. 'Twas not for her  
Who slept beneath the sea.  
On sped I then without the spur,  
By homestead, heath, and lea.

"O'erhead the perfect moon kept pace,  
In meek and brilliant power,  
And lit, ere long, the eastern face  
Of Tamerton Church-Tower."

That the author is as effective in the expression of feeling as in the description of scenery, the concluding lines of a piece entitled 'Love's Apology' will show:—

"O, heathen gross conceit, to blind  
The eyes of Love, that subtly see,  
And him call captive and confin'd,  
Whom Love makes excellently free!  
With bale more sweet than others' bliss,  
And bliss more wise than others' bale,  
The secrets of the world are his,  
And freedom without let or pale.  
If Fate his dear ambition mar,  
And load his breast with hopeless pain,  
And seem to blot out sun and star,  
Love, lost or won, is Wisdom's gain:  
For, looking backward through his tears,  
With vision of maturer scope,  
He smiles as one dead joy appears  
The platform of some better hope;



Confessing that the sharpest smart  
Which human patience may endure,  
Pays light for that which leaves the heart  
More generous, dignified, and pure."

We leave these extracts to speak for themselves, and think our readers will agree with us in considering that the poems have some merit both as regards their matter and their style.

*Lectures on Quaternions: Containing a Systematic Statement of a New Mathematical Method.* By Sir William Rowan Hamilton, Royal Astronomer of Ireland. Hodges and Smith.

To mathematicians in this country the ingenious theories of Sir William Hamilton have long been well known. It is nearly twenty years since he published his essay on the principles of algebra, 'The Theory of Conjugate Functions, or Algebraic Couples,' in the preliminary dissertation of which he represented algebra as the science of Pure Time, not a mere art, nor language, nor *primarily* a science of quantity. To this view he was led by some of the metaphysical speculations of Kant, which seemed to justify the expectation that it should be possible to construct a science of time, as well as a science of space. Algebra is thus, according to the learned professor, 'the science of order in progression.' How this idea was carried out will be more fully seen in the present volume, which contains a systematic statement of a new mathematical method, of which the principles were first communicated to the Royal Irish Academy in 1843, and which has since formed the subject of successive courses of lectures, delivered in 1848 and subsequent years. The work is not of a kind to admit of our giving any analysis or offering special comments, but we merely commend to the study of mathematical readers this exposition of the calculus of quaternions, which, in the systematic and elaborate course of lectures now published, appears free from much of the obscurity which has hitherto prevented it receiving the notice it has hitherto obtained. Some of the physical and geometrical applications of the calculus afford striking and remarkable results. We well remember, at the last meeting of the British Association at Oxford, how small was the number of those by whom the views of Sir William Hamilton were appreciated. This treatise is as clear and elementary as could be expected on such a subject, and will introduce the author's views more generally to mathematicians. Whatever may be thought of the value of Sir William Hamilton's calculus, there can be but one expression of admiration of the ability, zeal, and perseverance manifested in the development and exposition of his system.

*A Complete Practical Grammar of the Hungarian Language, with Exercises, Selections from the best Authors, and Vocabulary.* By J. Csink. Williams and Norgate.

This is a most complete and systematic work. The first part of the volume treats of the principles of the grammar of the Hungarian language, with copious practical exercises for students. In the second part, a sketch of Hungarian literature is given, with selections in prose and verse, the latter including some of the noble Magyar odes of Berzsenyi, Vörösmarty, and Kisfaludy. The interest taken in the political affairs of Hungary may induce some Englishmen to study the literature of the country, as a guide and assistance to which, Csink's practical grammar, with its extracts and vocabularies, will be found of great service.

*Practical Observations on Aural Surgery, and the Nature and Treatment of Diseases of the Ear.* With Illustrations. By William R. Wilde. John Churchill.

No branch of the healing art has been so uncertain and so much left to empiricism as aural surgery. This has arisen greatly from the difficulty of the subject, and though many eminent physicians and surgeons have made important contributions to the knowledge of diseases of the organ of hearing, there has been deficiency of careful and systematic study of these common complaints. For a long period Dublin had the honour of supporting the only public institution where clinical and practical instruction on aural surgery could be obtained.

Mr. Wilde had the advantage of being attached to this institution, and in the management of it acquired much of the experience of which he now presents the result to the practitioner and student of medicine. It is a book of much learned research and scientific and practical knowledge. The history of this department of practice is ably sketched, the principles of diagnosis clearly stated, and copious details given as to the best modes of treatment, with illustrative cases. An American edition of the work is being published, by Dr. Addinell Hewson of Philadelphia, and a German translation by Dr. Von Haselberg of Stralsund. It is a most valuable contribution to medical literature.

*A Manual of the Art of Dyeing.* By James Napier, F.C.S. Illustrated by engravings. Griffin and Co.

ON an important department of practical art this is a valuable practical treatise. The principles of the art are scientifically explained, and full and clear directions are given for all the processes used in the trade. The author is himself a practical dyer, and being also a man of science, his work is what it professes to be, "a system of chemistry applied to dyeing." With the literature of his subject he is conversant, and enriches his pages with extracts from the works of those who have preceded him in treating of the subject. There are numerous diagrams and illustrations, and a glossary of technical terms is appended.

*Bradshaw's Illustrated Handbook for Travellers in Belgium, on the Rhine, and through portions of Rhenish Prussia.* With Maps and Illustrations. Bradshaw and Blacklock.

THIS is the first of a series of Continental handbooks projected by the well-known proprietors of our home railway guides. Travellers will find in this volume all necessary directions concerning their routes through Belgium and on the Rhine, along with a large amount of historical and descriptive matter, such as is usually found in such works. The large correspondence and connexion of the proprietors give them peculiar advantages for obtaining accurate and recent information. On some special subjects other handbooks will retain superiority, but for the practical guidance of ordinary tourists this will come into extensive use. The numerous charts, and plans of towns, and other illustrations, add to the value of the book, but we cannot say much for what are called 'the beautiful woodcuts.' If the other handbooks are prepared as carefully as this of Belgium, continental tourists will adopt, as a familiar household word, 'Look at your Bradshaw,' as well as 'Look at your Murray.' Although the matter of Murray may not be pirated, the prescriptive colour of the standard handbooks is assumed, and foreigners will still say, 'There goes an Englishman with his red book.'

#### SUMMARY.

A BRIEF treatise on *The New Supplies of Gold, their actual Amount and probable Results*, (Pelham Richardson,) by William Newmarch, is reprinted from the columns of the 'Morning Chronicle,' with additional matter. It presents a clear statement of the facts of the subject, and the inferences are drawn with logical accuracy and financial ability. Mr. Newmarch, as the general conclusion, states his conviction that the effects of the new gold are almost wholly beneficial, leading to the development of new branches of enterprise, to new discoveries, and the establishment in remote regions of a numerous, active, and intelligent population. At home, trade has been quickened and extended, and the condition of the working classes elevated. As to future probable results, the author does not dread the evils of which some are apprehensive. He does not consider that, under existing contracts, creditors will be sacrificed to debtors, nor that the recipients of fixed incomes will be hopelessly impoverished, nor that capital will cease to command a reasonable rate of interest. On the contrary, the revolution will necessarily be so gradual in its course, that no evils of any magnitude are to be dreaded, and the changes accompanying the increase of the precious metal will only be such

as are adapted to the expanding intelligence and resources of mankind.

Captain Warner, undeterred by the neglect of his inventions by public men, re-appears with *Facts and Documents relating to our National Defences, with Remarks addressed to the People for their Consideration.* Captain Warner reiterates the assertion of the destructive and defensive efficacy of his inventions, especially of the subaqueous explosive shells, and alleges that the unwillingness of the authorities to give them fair trial, arises from the conviction that they would necessitate a thorough change in the management of all our dockyards and arsenals. We have formerly stated that Captain Warner has suffered from too much attention being turned to what he calls his long range, the uncertainty of which renders it less important and less likely to prove of practical service than other inventions. Commander Harvey, in a letter, expresses a hope, that if England does not make use of them, they may be put at the disposal of the Ottoman empire. "With the inventions of Warner at their command, the Turks could defy the Russians; with a few steam-boats of comparatively small cost, they could dispose of the Russian vessels of war in the Black Sea in the crack of a handspike; and who, I would like to know, would attempt the passage of the Dardanelles if that were defended by Invisible Shells!" Captain Warner says, that if France were to attempt to make a move against this country, he could, with only four steamers fitted out on his plans, most easily blockade every port along the whole line of the French coast, and at the same time destroy every ship, if requisite.

For students of Greek literature a useful manual is prepared of *The Homeric Dialect, its leading Forms and Peculiarities*, by James Skerrett Baird, T.C.D. The variations of the epic language which distinguish the Homeric poems are pointed out in a clear and systematic manner, and useful tables and paradigms are included in the work from the best German writers on the dialects. Mr. Baird intends to publish similar treatises on the other dialects, to facilitate the study of the Greek classics. A series of ethical discourses, *The Vices; or, Lectures to Young Men*, by the Rev. Henry Ward Beecher, contains warnings and counsels by a man who knows much of the world, and who is actuated by sincere and earnest anxiety for the welfare of the young. Some of the statements are especially addressed to American readers, but most of the principles and practical hints are applicable to young men under all circumstances. A pamphlet on *The Fashionable Philanthropy of the Day*, (Hope and Co.), by an anonymous writer who calls himself a Briton, contains an apology for slavery under the mask of concern for other nearer objects of philanthropic regard. It is addressed 'to the Stoweites of England and Scotland.' So coarse and insolent a production will do little harm to the good cause which it attacks, and the author may well be ashamed to publish his name. In *An Appendix to the Lecture on Colchester Castle*, with a reply to the animadversions of the Rev. E. L. Cutts, the Rev. Henry Jenkins, Rector of Hanway, Essex, undertakes to make good his former statements, and to identify Colchester Castle with the Roman Temple of Claudius. Mr. Cutts thinks the castle entirely a Norman structure.

#### LIST OF NEW BOOKS.

- Barnard's (G.) Handbook of Foliage, &c., post 8vo, 6s.  
Bohn's Antiquarian Library, Lepsius' Letters from Egypt, 5s.  
— Classical Library, Aristophanes' Comedies, Vol. 2, 3s. 6d.  
— Standard Library, Miss Bremer's Works, Vol. 3, 3s. 6d.  
Callery's History of the Insurrection in China, 7s. 6d.  
Carpenter's (W. B.) Physiology of Temperance, 7s. 6d.  
Cecil Dean: a Story for the Young, by Bessie, 12mo, 3s. 6d.  
Chaumont (L. F.) Le Conseiller de la Jeunesse, 12mo, 2s.  
Crawford's (Miss) French Confectionery, 12mo, 2s. 6d.  
Dawson (R.) on Spermatorrhoea, 7th edition, crown 8vo, 2s.  
De Gray's Characteristics of the Duke of Wellington, 6d.  
Israel's Works, Vol. 7, Ixion in Heaven, 12mo, 1s. 6d.  
Extracts about Christ, 18mo, cloth, 2s.  
Fenby's Copious Dictionary of English Synonyms, 2s. 6d.  
Grey's (Earl) Colonial Policy, 2 vols. 8vo, cloth, £1 8s.  
Huntington's Bank of Faith, 12mo, cloth, 1s. 6d.  
Illustrated Family Novelist, The Alain Family, 2s. 6d.  
— London Library, Three Residences of India, 4s.



Maclean's (A. J.) Horace, with English Notes, 12mo, 5s.  
 Nelson's Narrative of a Journey in the East, 8vo, 10s. 6d.  
 Nelson's Poetical Works, 12mo, cloth, 5s.  
 National Illustrated Library, Life of E. Burke, 2s. 6d.  
 Plea for Industrial Schools, 12mo, cloth, 3s. 6d.  
 Sinclair's (C.) London Homes, &c., foolscap 8vo, cloth, 5s.  
 Trollope's Questions and Answers on the Liturgy, 18mo, 2s.  
 Wyne's (John) Three Original Plays, crown 8vo, 5s.

#### BRITISH ASSOCIATION FOR THE ADVANCEMENT OF SCIENCE.

THE meeting commences at Hull on Wednesday, September 7th. The preparations for the reception of the members are in a very forward state, and there is every prospect of a spirited and successful meeting. Large and conveniently situated rooms are being fitted up for the sectional meetings, and the suite of public rooms in Jarratt-square, and the saloon of the Mechanics' Institute, have been painted and entirely re-decorated expressly for this occasion. The evening promenades are to be held in the former rooms, and the committee are busily engaged in providing objects of interest in science and art, and otherwise exerting themselves to render these *re-unions* interesting and attractive. The evening meetings are to be held in the Mechanics' Saloons, and will be occupied with the President's address, and with lectures from Professor Phillips, Mr. R. Hunt, &c.

Ample provision has been made for the accommodation of visitors, and a daily ordinary arranged.

The offers of papers for the sectional meetings are already considerably above the average, and include essays from Professor Sedgwick, Mr. Fairbairn, &c. Upwards of sixty are already, we hear, on the secretary's list.

Excursions to Beverley, Flamborough, Spurn, Grimsby, Brocksby, Grimston Park, and Barton Constable, are among the arrangements; the Committee have in these matters been met with much liberality by the railway companies.

With a view of thoroughly informing the public of the objects and advantages of the Association, the Mayor has called a meeting of the inhabitants in the Guildhall at one o'clock on Monday, and means have been taken for exciting interest in the proceedings through the surrounding districts.

#### ARCHITECTURAL EDUCATION.

WALKING along the streets of London with an intelligent foreigner, if there is anything that makes an Englishman sometimes ashamed of his country, it is the frequent deformity of our public buildings. To mention instances would be a needless labour. It is all very well to say that we are mainly a commercial community, a practical people, and that ornament must give way to convenience, and taste to utility. But architecture is of all arts that in which the useful and the beautiful may best be combined. We have public edifices which are standing proofs of the national capacity for great architecture, and the admiration of them proves the popular appreciation of the art. But still there are occasional exhibitions of miserable invention and of bad taste, and some of the most recent public structures are amongst the worst. The general condemnation of an unsightly building is a gratifying symptom of public taste, for the education and refinement of which so much is now being done. But it is worthy of consideration whether something meanwhile might not be done to prevent the perpetration of architectural offences. Our attention is directed to the subject by the publication of an 'Essay on Architectural Education,' by Mr. J. T. Knowles, jun., to which was awarded the prize offered by the Royal Institute of British Architects. Mr. Knowles thinks that architecture ought to be made 'one of the learned professions,' like medicine or law, that its members ought to be trained by courses of varied study, corresponding with the high place to which the art should be raised, and that no one ought to be permitted to assume the name or engage in the profession of an architect without passing an examination, and receiving a diploma, in testimony of his knowledge and capacity. At present, any carpenter, undertaker, or builder, may style himself 'architect.'

"Why," asks Mr. Knowles, "if provided by a wise legislation with good books and against bad physics, refuse to ensure to the people good houses, sightly churches, inoffensive galleries of art and science?" Accordingly, it is proposed that the Royal Institute of Architects should obtain powers analogous to those placed in the hands of the Inns of Law, and of the College of Surgeons, having legal power of examination, and of debarring from architectural practice any man not possessed of its diploma. At first the diploma might be granted on examination being passed satisfactorily, wherever the competent knowledge might be obtained, but ultimately it might be well to establish an architectural college, with branch schools and other organized arrangements for professional education. While we agree with the writer of this essay on the importance of architectural education, and the room there is for great reform in the profession, we cannot recommend the proposal of establishing by law an architectural guild with exclusive privileges. We have no objection to the Institute of Architects, or any other corporation, granting diplomas, which may have merely the force of recommendatory testimonials. But there is no plea for discouraging or debarring others from the practice of the profession, as in the case of unlicensed physicians, by whom actual injuries, personal or social, may be inflicted, against which it is the duty of Government to provide. There are reasons for public interference with personal liberty in the one case which do not hold good in the other. We would so far, however, enter into the proposed protective system, as to suggest that some public board, not composed of professional architects, should possess a veto on the erection of any public building, obviously offensive to good taste. Under the existing Building Acts, it is necessary that the most trifling constructions and alterations in private buildings should be submitted to the inspection of district surveyors. It might surely be easily provided that the plans of edifices of public prominence or importance should be submitted to some competent public board.

Demosthenes told the Athenians of his time, that while the houses of Miltiades and Aristides were undistinguished from those of other citizens, the public edifices were carefully adorned with the most splendid magnificence. And in Rome, Horace mentions the *Leges*,

"Oppida publico  
 Sumptu, jubentes, et Deorum  
 Tempia, novo decorare saxo."

There are some of the institutions of old Rome which might be usefully imitated in our modern civic arrangements, and of these not the least important would be an effective board of *Ædiles*.

#### THE COSMOS INSTITUTE.

THE project of a popular geographical institution in London, of which we formerly took notice, has been organized, and a prospectus issued, headed by a list of influential patrons, among whom are the Duke of Leinster, Lord de Mauley, the Bishop of St. David's, Rear-Admiral Sir Francis Beaufort, Mr. Layard, and Baron Humboldt. Of the executive council the president is Lord Stanley, and the vice-president Sir John Dorat, M.D. It is proposed to purchase Mr. Wylde's "Great Globe" in Leicester-square, and to surround the present building with rooms and galleries, devoted to museums, libraries, lecture theatres, and other apartments.

"Whilst it is intended to maintain the large model of the earth in its present position, it is proposed to add to the present extensive collection of ancient and modern maps, charts, and books, all the maps, charts, and geographical works published throughout the world; and to invite the assistance of Foreign Governments and societies to contribute all their maps, charts, and geographical works, published under the sanction of the State (many of whom have already kindly offered their publications), so that proprietors and the public may have immediate access to the best sources of information on every subject connected with geography, hydrography, and the allied sciences.

"It is further proposed to maintain a competent body of demonstrators and lecturers, who shall deliver regular courses of lectures upon physical and political geography and ethnology, not only within the model, but also in the theatres of the Institute, so as to embrace all the requirements of a great geographical school; to hold meetings of the members, at which scientific papers shall be read and discussed; and to uphold a library and reading-room, where the most important newspapers, English, foreign, and colonial, will be filed, where the maps, charts, engravings, books, and transactions of learned societies, can be conveniently consulted, and where the latest information bearing upon geographical discoveries, and all matters especially relating to new shoals, rocks, and harbours, will be regularly exhibited. In the extension of the present plan within the proposed buildings, ample space will enable the Institute to fill up a great public want—viz., an immediate public reference to all the Government publications, the Admiralty charts, the Colonial surveys, the Parliamentary maps, and maps published throughout the world; thus combining with the highest aims of science, and the most profound researches, the means of diffusing information and instruction to the humblest inquirer."

For an institution of the kind here described there is ample room, and the Cosmos Institute may prove an important medium for the diffusion of popular knowledge on geography and the allied sciences. The collection of books, maps, and charts, easily accessible for consultation or study, will be a valuable privilege to the general community, as well as to the members of the Institute. While the learned societies extend the boundaries of the sciences to which they are devoted, a popular institution like that now projected may communicate information, and diffuse an interest in geographical and kindred studies. In a maritime and commercial country like Great Britain, whose colonies are in every climate, and whose people visit every region of the earth, the knowledge of foreign countries, with their inhabitants, productions, climates, and other physical or ethnological details, ought to form a prominent part in popular education. For promoting this object the Cosmos Institute, if ably and judiciously managed, may supply valuable aid.

#### TOPICS OF THE WEEK.

TOWARDS the close of the session of parliament application was made for the grant of apartments from the Government for the use of the Royal Geographical Society. We expressed surprise that this isolated request should be made so soon after the agitation for a common place of meeting for all the Scientific Societies of London, in which the Geographers had taken a prominent part. The reply of the Chancellor of the Exchequer seemed to point to this when he said that "there were considerations which rendered it difficult to consider the case apart from that of other Societies." In justice to the Geographers, and to their distinguished President, we gladly insert an explanatory letter which we have received from Sir Roderick Murchison:—

"Plauen, Saxony, August 24, 1853.

"Having only recently received your Journal of the 6th August, I have read for the first time the paragraph with which you have headed your 'Topics' of that week, and in which, whilst admitting that the Royal Geographical Society has been labouring effectively for the public good, you state at the same time that you are glad that the application of my respected friend, Mr. Hume, in favour of the Geographers, met with a reproof from Her Majesty's government!"

"Having read the report of the proceedings in the House of Commons on the occasion in question as I passed through Leipzig, I did not detect the symptom of such reproof in any expression which fell from the Chancellor of the Exchequer in his answer to Mr. Hume. On the contrary, I only saw therein the reiteration of what I had previously been assured of by that distinguished statesman, as also by the Earl of Aberdeen, i. e., that the Royal Geographical Society was well entitled to be placed on the same footing as the Geological, Astronomical, and other Societies, by having an apartment of its own. This favour was all that the Geographers asked for, and as I was the medium of communication between the Society and the Government, I am bound to assure you, for the better information of those of your readers who may not have perused my last address to the Geographical Society, that I have the pledge of Her Majesty's government that apartments shall be

granted to us as soon as they can be obtained. This is no new request on the part of the Geographers, but is one which has been repeatedly made to different governments.

"I further beg to inform you that such application does not in the slightest degree interfere, as your observation would imply, with the memorial of the other Scientific Societies of the metropolis, to have one common place of meeting.

"In that 'juxtaposition' memorial I heartily joined, in common with all the leading members of the Society over which I presided, and I sincerely hope that so rational a request may be granted. But in respect to the part which the Geographers have taken, it is simply to be explained by the fact, that the lease of the apartments in Waterloo-place having terminated in June, it became necessary to obtain some meeting-place during the long period which must probably elapse before such a general institute of science as was applied for could be erected."

The new Comet, the appearance of which we last week noticed, has been conspicuous this week every fine evening. It appears of the size of a star of the first magnitude, the tail in a single stream extending several degrees, distinctly visible with the naked eye. It was first discovered on the 10th of June, by Mr. Klinkerfues, of the Observatory at Göttingen, but was not bright enough to be seen without a telescope till about the 15th of August. Mr. Hind, in a letter to 'The Times,' states that the actual diameter of the bright nucleus is 8000 miles, or about equal to that of the earth, while the tail had a real length of 4,500,000 miles, and a breadth of 250,000, rather over the distance separating the moon from the earth. Mr. Hind also states that this is not the comet, the appearance of which he had announced, as has been hinted by Sir William Hamilton, the elements of the orbits having no resemblance. He says that the comet referred to will probably appear between 1858 and 1861, and that if the perihelion passage occurs during the summer months, we may expect to see a body of far more imposing aspect than the one at present visible. The comet is now at its nearest point to the earth, the distance being 68,000,000 miles, and may be seen in its greatest brilliancy if the sky is favourable. It appears to have terrified the inhabitants of Madrid as much as one would have done in the middle ages. They think that it predicts pestilence, scarcity, insurrection, and war.

The account of the Meteorological Observations made during the scientific balloon ascents last year, by Mr. Welsh of the Kew Observatory, as communicated to the Royal Society, and read at one of the meetings this summer, has just been published in the 'Philosophical Transactions.' After describing the instruments and apparatus, and stating the objects to which especial attention was directed, Mr. Welsh gives a very interesting narrative of the several aerial voyages. Of these some notices appeared in our columns at the time, communicated by Mr. Welsh. In the report in the 'Philosophical Transactions,' the various meteorological observations are given in detail, notes and observations accompanying the tabular statements. The principal results deduced from the experiments described are thus stated. The temperature of the air decreases uniformly with the height above the earth's surface, until at a certain elevation, varying on different days, the decrease is arrested, and for a space of from 2000 to 3000 feet, the temperature remains nearly constant, or even increases by a small amount; the regular diminution being afterwards resumed, and generally maintained, at a rate slightly less rapid than in the lower part of the atmosphere, and commencing from a higher temperature than would have existed but for the interruption noticed. This interruption in the decrease of temperature is accompanied by a large and abrupt fall in the temperature of the dew-point, or by actual condensation of vapour, from which it may be inferred that the disturbance in the progression of temperature arises from a development of heat in the neighbourhood of the plane of condensation. The subsequent falls in the temperature of the dew-point are generally of an abrupt character, and corresponding interruptions in the decreasing progression of temperature are sometimes distinguishable, but in a less degree, as might be expected from the fact, that at lower temperatures the variations

in the absolute amount of aqueous vapour are necessarily smaller, and their thermic effects consequently diminished. The analysis of the portions of air collected in the ascents is reported by Professor Miller of King's College. The proportions of oxygen and nitrogen were determined by detonation with hydrogen in Regnault's endiometer. The volumes of oxygen in the air from different heights are given in the following table:—

Air collected at King's	Altitude.	Volume of Oxygen.
College . . . . .	...	20·920
Tube 2 . . . . .	13,460 feet	20·888
Tube 3 . . . . .	18,000 feet	20·747
Tube (G 1) Torricellian vacuum . . . . .	18,630 feet	20·888

These results confirm the statement made long ago by Gay Lussac, at a time when gaseous analysis was less perfect than at present, but there is no sensible difference in the composition of the atmosphere on the surface and at the greatest heights accessible to man, so far as the proportions of oxygen and nitrogen are concerned. The quantities of air submitted to Professor Miller were too small to admit of the proportion of carbonic acid being determined, but its presence seems to have been shown in all by the formation of a film of carbonate of lead upon a solution of the subacetate, which was introduced to a portion of the air confined over mercury. Besides the tabular statements of the observations, the results for each ascent of the notes of temperature, tension of vapour, and relative humidity, are projected in linear diagrams or engraved plates. The manner in which the whole of the experiments were conducted is highly creditable to Mr. Green and Mr. Nicklin, by whom he was accompanied in the first two ascents, and the report, as it appears in the 'Philosophical Transactions,' is a document of much popular interest as well as of great scientific value.

The sale of the Daylesford estate, and the dispersion of the furniture of the mansion, is an event suggestive of many historical recollections, and will serve to point another moral of "the vanity of human wishes." Many of our readers will remember the fine reflections of Macaulay on the purchase of Daylesford by Warren Hastings:—"The dearest wish of his heart had always been to regain Daylesford. At length, in the very year in which his trial commenced, the wish was accomplished, and the domain, alienated more than seventy years before, returned to the descendant of its old lords. But the manor-house was a ruin, and the grounds round it had during many years been utterly neglected. Hastings proceeded to build, to plant, to form a sheet of water, to excavate a grotto; and before he was dismissed from the bar of the House of Lords, he had expended more than forty thousand pounds in adorning his seat." Sir James Mackintosh describes the examination of Hastings before the House of Commons on the 30th of March, 1813. "The appearance of a man of fine countenance, and in possession of spirit and strength, as well as understanding, at the distance of thirty years after he had retired from the supreme government, respectfully listened to as a witness, at the same bar where he had been arraigned as a culprit, created a strong interest." The last twenty-four years of his life were spent at Daylesford. In Macaulay's Essay a graphic account is given of his mode of life and occupations, "when literature divided his attention with his conservatories and his menagerie." He died in 1813, in the eighty-sixth year of his age. "Behind the chancel of the parish church of Daylesford, in earth which already held the bones of many chiefs of the house of Hastings, was laid the coffin of the greatest man who has ever borne that ancient and widely-extended name. On that very spot, probably, fourscore years before, the little Warren, meanly clad, and scantily fed, had played with the children of ploughmen." And now Daylesford has again passed into the hands of strangers!

The announcement of the death of Sir Charles Napier, G.C.B., the hero of Scinde, will be received

with deep and universal regret. His military services and exploits occupy a large space in modern English history. He entered the army in January 1794, and for above half a century he had a distinguished professional and public career. In 1798 and 1803 he was engaged in the suppression of rebellion and revolt in Ireland. In the early part of the Peninsular war he commanded 'the fighting 50th,' and was taken prisoner at Corunna, after receiving five dangerous wounds. He returned to the seat of war in 1809, and was present at the Coa, at Busaco, Fuentes d'Onor, the second siege of Badajoz, and other actions. In 1813 he was engaged on the American coast, in the expedition which landed at Craney Island. The conquest of Scinde, after the wonderful battles of Meeanee and Hyderabad, showed that the genius and vigour of the veteran commander were unimpaired. These victories, in the first of which, with only 2800 British troops, he defeated 22,000 of the enemy in a strong position, and in the second, with 5000 men, overthrew an army of 20,000, equal in renown to Plassey and Assaye, and the other famous fights of earlier Anglo-Indian history. In 1849 it was amid general acclamation that he was appointed Commander-in-Chief of the Forces in India. The Directors of the East India Company would gladly have avoided the appointment, but the country insisted on his being sent, as the man who could best avert the dangers then threatening our eastern empire. The Duke of Wellington strongly advised the appointment, and is said to have overcome the hesitation of the gallant veteran by the remark, "If you don't go, I must." The circumstances of Sir Charles Napier's return to England have not been sufficiently explained, but a work is in the press and announced for publication, entitled 'Indian Misgovernment and Lord Dalhousie,' in which Sir Charles has prepared a statement of the civil and military evils which are endangering the stability of our empire in India, with an explanation of the causes of his resigning his command. Like almost all the members of the illustrious family to which he belongs, Sir Charles Napier was ready with his pen as well as with his sword. He is the author of various works, which bear the mark of his well-informed and energetic mind. He died in his 71st year. In Mrs. Colin Mackenzie's recently published work, 'Life in the Mission, the Camp, and the Zenana,' an anecdote is told of Sir Charles Napier, strikingly characteristic of his stern virtue as a soldier and his kindly feeling as a man. Two officers were cashiered for bad conduct, the mother of one of whom, and the wife of the other, being reduced thereby to distress, strong representations were made to Sir Charles Napier. To the intercessors, one of whom was his son-in-law, Major M'Murdo, the chief replied, "It may be thought a fine thing to be commander-in-chief, but nothing can make up for these painful duties." He was quite overcome, and burst into tears, and never did tears better become a fine old soldier. After a time, he added, "But what can I do? I must do my duty! I am ready to help both these ladies to the extent of my power." And he then promised to head a subscription list, giving in both cases a thousand rupees.

The last advices from the Cape of Good Hope announce the death, at Cape Town, on the 6th of July, of Lady Sale, the widow of Major-General Sir Robert Sale, G.C.B., the hero of Jellalabad. Lady Sale's name is honourably associated with many memorable scenes in Anglo-Indian history, and her 'Journal of the Disasters in Afghanistan' entitles her to mention in literary as well as historical annals. In acknowledgment of her husband's distinguished services, and of her own courage and conduct during the fatal tragedy of the Cabul campaign and in her subsequent captivity, Her Majesty granted to Lady Sale a pension of 5000 a year.

M. Charles Reynaud, of Paris, author of a volume of poetry called 'Épîtres et Pastorales,' and of a volume of prose, 'Voyage d'Athènes à Balbec,' has just died. The Paris papers publish most laudative accounts of his writings; but we are inclined to fancy that they are more owing to per-

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sonal considerations than to the possession by him of transcendent poetical or literary merit. Nevertheless there are some few very charming pieces in his volume of verse, one of them, a description of a farm-yard at midday, is an exquisite little pastoral.

The present month sees the termination of Mr. Dickens's story of 'Bleak House,' which we doubt not most of our readers have gone along with in its monthly progress, and will be satisfied with the manner in which he disposes of his various characters at the final winding up. This work manifests the acknowledged skill of its author in delineating human life and character, and in striking descriptions of natural scenery. The work began with an impressive picture of the soul-crushing vexations which have for ages been known to be the portion of suitors in Chancery, and in the preface, which bears the date of August 1853, the author in his own person reiterates his conviction of the truth of his representations. We trust, however, that in the last two sessions of Parliament, reforms in Chancery have been brought forward in an honest and wise spirit; and that the alterations made and to be made in that court, and in all the other processes of law which really require amendment, will render the 'law's delay' and the law's oppressions matters of history.

Among the lecturers engaged for the Philosophical Institution at Edinburgh next session are Mr. Ruskin, who will deliver four lectures on modern painting and on architecture, the Rev. Charles Kingsley, on the Alexandrian schools of philosophy, Professor Hunt on light, heat, and photography, Professor Kinkel on German literature, Mr. Hugh Miller on the geology of Midlothian, and other men distinguished in science, literature, or the arts. The introductory address is to be delivered by Principal Scott of Manchester, formerly of University College, London. The Council of the Institution have provided a splendid array of talent and an ample variety of subjects for the instruction and entertainment of the members in the lecturing department.

We are happy to observe, from the last *compte rendu* of the French Académie des Sciences, that M. Arago is sufficiently recovered to have taken an active part in the proceedings. The meeting was very thinly attended, and regret was expressed that a larger number of members was not present to support the distinguished secretary, whose devotedness to science was the more marked in his appearance being against the urgent remonstrances of his family and of his medical attendant.

A correspondent at Boulogne-sur-Mer suggests that the English residents in that town ought to place a marble tablet, with a suitable inscription, in front of the house in which the poet Campbell died. This is a simple, unexpensive, and yet very becoming way of honouring the illustrious dead, which is universally practised in France. At Boulogne itself there is an instance of it,—the house in which Lesage, author of 'Gil Blas,' breathed his last is distinguished from its fellows by such a tablet.

Drs. Studt, Ulrich, and Seigfried, professors of the University of Zurich, have recently ascended to the top of Mont Toedi, in the canton of Glaris—a height of more than 3600 yards above the level of the sea. The ascent is only the third on record. The mountain is the highest in Western Switzerland.

The editor of a Montpelier newspaper has just had 800*l.* left him on condition that he will publish a detailed biography of the testator in his journal. Lucky editor!

Great preparations are making for the Gloucester Musical Festival, which commences on the 13th of this month. The programme presents a grand array of performers, vocal and instrumental, and a selection of sacred and secular music, which promises to render the festival one of unusual attractiveness and success.

The chief musical event of this week has been the inauguration of St. George's Musical Hall at Bradford by a grand festival, in which a series of oratorios and concerts have been given, in which

some of the most distinguished artists at present in England have taken part.

In the death of Lord Saltoun, K.C.B., the musical institutions of the metropolis have lost an intelligent and zealous patron and friend. Lord Saltoun was President of the Madrigal Society and Chairman of the Musical Union.

The musical composers of Paris have been greatly alarmed at the announcement in the newspapers of the intention of the management of the Opéra Comique to produce Meyerbeer's *Camp of Silesia* with variations. They, it seems, even threatened to appeal to the Government to employ its all-powerful authority over the theatre, to prevent the bringing out of an opera which has already been performed in a foreign country—a thing, it is alleged, not in accordance with the standing rules and traditions of that house. Meyerbeer, however, has silenced their somewhat ungenerous opposition, by making known that the opera he is preparing will *not* be the *Camp of Silesia*, but will contain only three or four *morceaux* from it, the rest being entirely rewritten, and to a perfectly new libretto. The present intention is, we understand, to call the forthcoming work the *Northern Star*.

At the Lyceum Theatre, Mr. Augustus Braham, who has lately returned from America, has been singing with deserved success. We doubt if even his father in his best days was more applauded. His voice is a powerful tenor, and he sings with judgment and feeling. As an actor he requires experience, but with his qualifications, it will be his own fault if he does not attain to eminence. On Thursday he appeared as *Elvino* in *Sonnambula*, and as *Tom Tug* in *The Waterman*.

The operatic company of Drury Lane have continued their performances, although not with the public favour that under other circumstances might have been expected. Madame Circadori has amply sustained her high reputation, but the want of adequate support in some of the parts has caused her to appear to disadvantage. The dramatic season commences at this theatre on Monday evening, when Mr. G. Brook appears as *Othello*.

Sadler's Wells opened for the season last Saturday. The play chosen was *Macbeth*, as performed at the same house in 1847. Mr. Phelps was heartily applauded, as he well deserved, for few actors or managers have done more to improve the public taste.

The Strand Theatre closed this week for the season. In consequence of the enterprising spirit of Mr. Alleroff, this little house has of late obtained a considerable amount of public patronage, attributable to the admirable manner in which many of our old English ballad operas have been produced, a proof how much the delightful airs which charmed our fathers are still appreciated in the present day.

The Princess's Theatre has also closed, after a most successful and profitable season.

#### PROCEEDINGS OF SOCIETIES.

ASTRONOMICAL.—June 10th.—G. B. Airy, Esq., President, in the chair. 'On the Determination of the Longitude of the Observatory of Cambridge by means of Galvanic Signals,' by G. B. Airy, Esq., Astronomer Royal. The president resigned the chair to Dr. Lee, and then gave a *viv-voce* account of the operations for determining the longitude of the Observatory of Cambridge by galvanic signals. The object for which the galvanic connexion of the Royal Observatory with the London Bridge Railway Station was originally proposed, was the determination of differences of longitude with other observatories, British and Continental. Till within a short time, however, the connexions have been made available, principally, for the transmission of daily signals at certain definite hours along the principal railways of England: for the dropping of the signal ball mounted by the Electric Telegraph Company on the roof of their office in the Strand; and for the maintenance of the movement of several sympathetic clocks, one of which is at the London Bridge Station. As soon, however, as the proper turn-plates were mounted at the Royal Observatory, and other details of mechanical arrangement were

completed, experimental comparisons were made (comparing the transit-clock at the Royal Observatory with a chronometer at London Bridge, with one at Dover, &c.) in order to learn by experience the most advantageous method of conducting the operation for a real determination of difference of longitude. The wire from London to Greenwich used in these operations is susceptible of such connexions, that its current may be made to pass through the coils of a telegraph needle which is fixed on the case of the transit-clock, and thus to the earth. This is the connexion which is used when signals are to be received from a distant station. The wire also admits of such connexion that the galvanic circuit, interrupted at one place in the Royal Observatory, passes from the earth through a galvanic battery, then through the coils of the telegraph-needle, then (with an interruption as is mentioned above) to London; and the interruption may be destroyed, or the circuit completed, either (on one arrangement of turn-plates) by an apparatus similar to that of the common speaking-telegraph; or (on another arrangement of turn-plates) by a contact-piece on the eye-end of the transit-circle, which is intended ultimately for use in the American method of recording transits. In either of these cases, if the London or distant end of the wire communicates through the coils of a telegraph-needle to the earth, the completion of the circuit at Greenwich will produce a movement both in the needle at Greenwich and in that of the distant station. The arrangement of Greenwich turn-plates which, in fact, was used in the observations to be described, was that in which the circuit is completed at the eye-end of the transit-circle. And some of the signals given did actually correspond to the transits of stars over wires of the transit-circle, as observed by the signal-giver, whose eye was applied to the eye-piece, while with his finger he made the contact with the contact-piece. In the arrangement which has been described, it will be perceived that nothing depends on the accuracy of the signal-giver. It is his business to complete the circuit, and thus to give signals at certain approximate times; but by this operation needle-signals, similar in all essential respects, are given both at Greenwich and at the distant station; and if observers are stationed to observe the motions of the needles, the comparison of the clocks will depend on the accuracy of these signal-observers only, who are under the very favourable circumstance of observing signals of similar character at both ends of the line. In order to give to these observations all practicable accuracy, it is desirable that the signal-giver should be at a distance from the signal-observer; and even that, if possible, he should be in another room. The arrangements made at the distant stations were formed on the same principles, and, in fact, approached very nearly to those which have been described as applying to Greenwich. In one respect, however, they were necessarily less perfect: in no other place is the galvanic-needle carried by the transit-clock; and it was necessary, therefore, at other places to use another clock or chronometer, which was compared by means of transportable chronometers with the transit-clock. The preceding description shows that at each station it is necessary to have a signal-giver (A) and a signal-observer (B). But it was also found advantageous to employ a third person (C), on account of the following arrangement. The plan adopted as most convenient was, that the signal-giver should fix, in his mind, upon any arbitrary number of signals for each 'batch'; and that he should give notice of this number of signals to the signal-observers at both ends by giving the same number of warning-signals at intervals of about 2'; (3' is better for a long line.) It was the duty of (C) to watch and count these warning-signals, and then to say, 'There are [so many] signals coming;' he then remained silent while the signals, at intervals of 10' to 15', were observed by the signal-observer; and when the just number was completed he called out, 'The batch is finished.' This left the signal-observer (B) free to examine the seconds on the dial, to write down the minutes, and generally to



prepare himself for the next batch. Supposing the signals given in equal numbers from the two ends of the line, the signal-giver (A) at each end was employed during only half the time; but (B) and (C) at each end were employed through the whole time. The order of operations then, as between Greenwich and Cambridge, was as follows:—At 11<sup>h</sup> P.M. Greenwich mean solar time, Greenwich commenced by giving five signals at intervals of about 2<sup>s</sup> each. The turn-plates were changed, and Cambridge responded by five similar signals. These were merely to say 'All is right.' Then Greenwich gave batches of signals as above described, in numbers of from three to nine signals in a batch (some of them being transits of stars), to 11<sup>h</sup> 15<sup>m</sup>. Then Cambridge gave similar batches to 11<sup>h</sup> 30<sup>m</sup>. Then Greenwich gave signals to 11<sup>h</sup> 45<sup>m</sup>, and Cambridge to 12<sup>h</sup> 0. This closed the night's signals. From 135 to 150 efficient signals were given; and as the observation of a signal is perhaps rather less accurate than the observation of a transit-wire, the probable error of the mean of these will be fairly comparable with that of the determination of clock-error in an evening's transits. The evenings selected for the determination of the longitude of Cambridge were those of 1853, May 17 and 18. Mr. Walker, Engineer and Superintendent of Telegraphs of the South-Eastern Railway, undertook to make the circuit perfect in every respect from Greenwich to Louthbury; and Mr. Edwin Clark, Engineer of the Electric Telegraph Company, provided carefully for the junctions at Louthbury and the Eastern Counties' station, and for the instrumental and personal aid required at the Cambridge station. To these gentlemen the thanks of astronomers are due; not simply for their assistance in the present operation, but for the energetic assistance which they have given in the important work of placing the Royal Observatory in galvanic connexion with the rest of England, and making its determinations of time generally useful. Professor Challis arranged the more strictly astronomical part of the operation, in the following manner. On May 17, Mr. Dunkin observed transits and galvanic signals at Greenwich, and Mr. Todd observed at Cambridge. On the morning of the 18th the observers were interchanged, and Mr. Todd observed transits and signals at Greenwich, while Mr. Dunkin observed at Cambridge. The errors of the transit-clocks were determined by two methods: method (A) in which the 'Nautical Almanac' stars were employed, the same corrections being applied to the right ascensions of the 'Nautical Almanac' for both observatories, but no particular care being taken for the identity of the stars at the two stations; and method (B) in which the clock was corrected by stars in a list suggested by Professor Challis, the same stars being observed at both stations, but no attention being given to the accuracy of the assumed right ascensions. For comparison of the Cambridge transit-clock with the chronometers used at the Railway Station, Professor Challis employed three chronometers. It was found necessary to reject the comparisons of one of these. It is unnecessary to say that every care was given to the determination of the instrumental errors of the transit-instruments at both stations. At both stations, transits were observed both before and after the galvanic signals, on both evenings. The number of battery-cells used at each station was 72. The air was dry, and the insulation was good. The results of the operation are as follows:—

*East Longitude of Cambridge. — Method (A.)*

May 17, by 145 signals . . .	22-953
May 18, by 134 signals . . .	22-978
Mean . . . . .	22-966

*Method (B.)*

May 17, by 145 signals . . .	22-903
May 18, by 134 signals . . .	22-988
Mean . . . . .	22-946

Mean of the whole . . . . . 22-956

This is probably one of the most accurate deter-

minations of difference of longitude hitherto made. The result arrived at in 1829, by transmission of chronometers, was 23<sup>s</sup> 54. The President then stated that on May 25th signals were passed (in exactly the same manner) to and from Edinburgh, for the determination of the longitude of Edinburgh Observatory, and, as regarded the galvanic part of the operation, with perfect success. There was, however, something suspicious in the indications of one of the chronometers employed at Edinburgh, which threw doubt on the clock-comparisons, and rendered the apparent determination of difference of longitude doubtful. The following result however was obtained, which is free from the influence of uncertainty in the chronometer-rate: that when a signal is given at Greenwich, by means of a Greenwich battery, the time noted for the signal at Edinburgh is later than that noted at Greenwich by 1-17th of a second of time (and *vice versa* if the signal is given at Edinburgh by means of an Edinburgh battery). This difference probably arises from two causes: first, the time actually occupied by the transmission of the galvanic pulse, which, according to the American determinations, would explain less than half of the difference; secondly, the circumstance that the galvanic current when it reaches the distant needle is somewhat less vigorous than when it passes the nearer needle, and the languid movement of the distant needle catches the eye more slowly, and is recorded as occurring at a later time. In reply to a remark by Mr. R. C. Carrington, on the influence of the length of the transit telescope upon the determination of clock error, the President stated that the length of the Greenwich transit telescope is less than 12 feet, and that at Cambridge 10 feet, and that no sensible error would result from that cause. 'On Certain Results of Laplace's Formule, expressing the Relation between the Inclinations, Eccentricities, and other Elements of the Planetary Orbits.' By Dr. Lardner. In this paper the author shows that the well-known formulæ of Laplace,

$$\Sigma (m \sqrt{a} e^2) = c \quad (I)$$

$$\Sigma (m \sqrt{a} \tan^2 i) = c' \quad (II)$$

would not of themselves suffice to assure the stability of the planetary system in the sense in which the term is usually applied. By a very simple process he demonstrates that for anything contained in these theorems to the contrary, the eccentricities of all the planets which revolve within the orbit of Jupiter may attain any magnitude whatever, that their several orbits may actually become hyperbolic, and that although the formulæ (II) certainly imposes major limits upon the inclinations, these limits are in some cases so considerable as to be inconsistent with the stability of the planetary system as usually understood. We shall obtain the numerical value of the constant *c* by calculating severally the products  $m \sqrt{a} e^2$  for each of the planets; but in the case of the group of small planets between Mars and Jupiter, their masses being undetermined, cannot with any arithmetical precision enter into this calculation; it is evident, however, that, from their extreme minuteness, they will produce a very inconsiderable effect upon the value of *c*. It may be sufficient for the present purpose to suppose the group to be replaced by a single planet, having a mass equal to that of the earth, an eccentricity equal to that of Mars, and a mean distance = 2.6. If this be assumed, and the several products  $m \sqrt{a} e^2$  be calculated from the tables of the planetary elements, we shall find the following numerical results:—

	$m \sqrt{a} e^2$
Mercury . . . . .	0.00000001298
Venus . . . . .	10
Earth . . . . .	79
Mars . . . . .	400
Planetoids . . . . .	3947
Jupiter . . . . .	504525
Saturn . . . . .	277266
Uranus . . . . .	38197
Neptune . . . . .	2219

$$\Sigma (m \sqrt{a} e^2) = 0.00000827941$$

It appears, therefore, that

$$c = 0.00000827941.$$

If it be desired then to ascertain the greatest possible eccentricity of each planet which is compatible with this constant value of *c*, it will only be necessary to suppose that *c* = 0 for all the other planets. That will give

$$e^2 = \frac{c}{m' \sqrt{a'}}$$

where *e'* is the eccentricity, *m'* the mass, and *a'* the mean distance of the planet, whose limiting eccentricity is sought. If, then, we substitute in this formula the numerical value of *c* determined above and the values of *e*, *m*, and *a* for each of the planets severally, we shall find the major limits of the values of *e* for the planets, including the imaginary planets taken to represent the group of planetoids.

	Major limit of <i>e</i> .
Mercury . . . . .	5.192
Venus . . . . .	1.976
Earth . . . . .	1.714
Mars . . . . .	4.240
Planetoids . . . . .	1.350
Jupiter . . . . .	0.0617
Saturn . . . . .	0.0970
Uranus . . . . .	0.2170
Neptune . . . . .	0.1684

It appears, therefore, that for all the planets included within the orbit of Jupiter, the major limits of *e* are greater than 1, and therefore the eccentricities are susceptible of all possible values between 0 and 1 and of all values between 1 and the several limiting values given above. It follows from all this that, consistently with the conditions involved in the formula (I), the orbits of these planets may be ellipses of any degree of eccentricity from the circle to the most flattened oval, and that they may be even hyperbolas, for which *e* would have any values between 1 and the several numbers given in the preceding table. In the case of the four superior planets, Jupiter, Saturn, Uranus, and Neptune, the formula does impose such narrow limits upon their eccentricities as must effectually guarantee their stability and the uniformity of their climatological conditions.

R. S. OF LITERATURE.—May 11th.—The Earl of Carlisle, President, in the chair. Mr. Vaux read a paper communicated by R. S. Poole, Esq., of the British Museum, 'On a Date in Egyptian Chronology calculated by M. Biot.' The writer's object was to institute a comparison between that which is generally acknowledged to be the most important of M. Biot's dates—viz., B.C. 1444, in the reign of Thothmes III., and the chronological systems which have been previously put forth. Champollion and Rosellini placed the accession of this king, who reigned more than thirty years, about three centuries, and Bunsen and Lepsius about one century, before M. Biot's date. Sir Gardner Wilkinson, in the chronological tables of his 'Modern Egypt and Thebes,' dates the reign of Thothmes III. from B.C. 1495 to 1457 inclusive, and since this chronology is confessedly approximate, the agreement may be considered as remarkably close, or even exact. The writer then observed that the only system of Egyptian chronology with which M. Biot's date perfectly tallies is his own, according to which Thothmes III. began to reign not later than B.C. 1445-1444.

FOREIGN CORRESPONDENCE.

Paris, August 31st.

THE 'Gazette' a few weeks ago gave a review of the recently published account of Napoleon's captivity at Saint Helena, compiled from the papers of Sir Hudson Lowe. Happening to mention this work the other day to a French literary gentleman, he informed me of a fact which is not uninteresting in connexion with it:—The late King Louis Philippe, some years ago, induced Sir Hudson Lowe to communicate to him all his papers, and especially all the dispatches written by or to him, on his mission at St. Helena, together with a full

and minute account of all that took place in the island with respect to Napoleon. In return for this, Sir Hudson is said to have received marks of His Majesty's munificence. Whether the king was anxious to possess the documents for the gratification of private curiosity, or for the purpose of having them employed to relieve the general (to whom he was pleased to show much courtesy) from the odium so unjustly heaped on him in France, or—perhaps not the least probable supposition—to endeavour to trace from them whether or not certain of Napoleon's companions were, as was alleged, paid by foreign governments to inform them of his movements, designs, and conversation, or, finally, that he thought that they possessed historical or political interest, which rendered it desirable that the ruler of France should be acquainted with them—whether the king was influenced by one or other of these considerations, or by all combined, is not known; but it is alleged that he considered the possession of the papers a matter of great importance, and went through them with extraordinary patience more than once. It is added that he subsequently came to an understanding with Sir Hudson Lowe to be allowed to keep certain originals, and to make certain copies; and that some time after he caused these originals and copies to be deposited in a place of safety in the Bibliothèque Royale. I asked my informant if the documents are still to be found in the Library, but he could not say. He, however, told me that some years ago a friend of his was allowed to examine them as a particular favour. In case the gentleman to whom Sir Hudson Lowe's manuscripts were confided for publication in England should be ignorant of what is here related, it may be worth his while to endeavour to see the papers at the Bibliothèque—if they still exist.

Professor Faraday's explanation of the phenomena of the turning tables, though accepted as perfectly satisfactory by those persons who sought only for a scientific solution, caused some murmuring amongst that portion of the community who are pleased with everything new and fascinated with everything mysterious. Since then these good people have made divers attempts to shake the authority of the Faradaian experiments, but in vain. A distinguished champion has, however, just come forward in their behalf—M. de Gasparin, a gentleman of large property, of some note in literature, formerly an eminent political character, and, if my memory does not deceive me, at one time a cabinet minister under Louis Philippe. In a long letter to the *Journal des Débats*, this eminent personage maintains that Mr. Faraday's experiments must by no means be considered conclusive; inasmuch as, though proving how the tables are made to turn, they do not explain the greater mystery of their responding to questions put to them, by knocking with their feet on the floor;—and this M. de Gasparin solemnly vows they do, after being practised on by human hands. The account which he gives of his experiments is curious in the extreme:—he and others caused tables to reply by knocks again and again, to questions that were asked, and questions that were imagined, and questions of a contradictory character put at the same moment by different operators. As it is impossible for a moment to suppose that a man of his standing and character could make a deliberate attempt to hoax the public by statements wilfully false, it must, no doubt, be assumed that he and his friends were labouring under some inexplicable hallucinations when they made their experiments.

No literature in the world is so rich in private memoirs of eminent personages as that of France, and every year and every month add to the valued store. In our own immediate time, Talleyrand has left several volumes of memoirs for publication; and it is expected they will be found to contain curious revelations on the men and the affairs of every country in Europe, during the eventful period comprised between the first French Revolution of 1789, and the earlier part of the reign created by the last revolution but two, in 1830. Even King Louis Philippe himself is said to have written

memoirs too; and it is certain that more than one of his ministers and of the distinguished men of his reign have done so. M. Villemain, who belongs to both these categories, is about, it is said, to give his to the world; and a certain Doctor Veron, a man of considerable notoriety in these parts, as a dealer in quack medicines, director of the Opera, and one of the principal founders of the empire, intends very shortly to bring out his, under the piquant title of *'Memoirs of a Bourgeois of Paris.'* Although this gentleman is vastly inferior in every respect to such a man as Villemain; and although he has played a very inferior rôle indeed on the public stage—"pillar of the (new) state" though he be—the chances are that his book will cast completely into the shade that of the ex-minister; for it will no doubt make revelations far more startling, will display scenes less edifying perhaps, but more amusing, and will deal largely in that which the public love so well—scandal.

Nothing could possibly exceed the present dullness of Paris. Scarcely any new publications worth reading are brought out. The theatres produce most horrible pieces by their worst performers. The scientific circles are unoccupied, or at best only take up matters with which the general public have no concern. In a word, the "capital of intelligence," as Paris likes to be called, is steeped in profound slumber. To be sure this is the dead season; to be sure, also, everybody who can possibly afford the money and the time is holidaying, or sea-bathing, or shooting, or journeying. But Paris has so much to do to regain what her political convulsions have caused her to lose, in the literary and intellectual movement of the present century, that she ought to be hard at work instead of playing.

Dresden, August 19th.

DRESDEN has not recovered from the blow which it received by the Revolution of 1849. The stormy terrors of that period uprooted many German and English families who had established themselves in the fair city, and although confidence has been to a great degree restored, yet the English quarter of Dresden is not what it was a few years ago. The Saxon monarch is a fortunate man. When the dark clouds of revolution loom in the horizon he betakes himself to his virgin fortress Königstein, which has the proud distinction of never having been captured, and within that singular place he bids defiance to popular tumults and discontent, whose waves break idly against the precipitous sides of his lofty eyrie. In this kindly fitting, which, by the way, is not very royal, his Majesty is accompanied by the contents of that amazing curiosity magazine which has dazzled the eyes and bewildered the senses of every visitor to Dresden. I allude to the gems and *objets de vertu* contained in the famous Green Vaults, which on occasions of popular commotion are packed up in strong boxes, kept ready for the purpose, and despatched under the protection of armed escorts to Königstein. It is not, however, surprising that this incomparable collection should be as well cared for as Majesty itself. It is valued at many millions of pounds.

I accepted the offer of a friend at court to visit the palace in detail, and was introduced to Bendemann, who was at work upon his very beautiful series of paintings in the new and very handsome ball-room. In the upper story of the palace are a suite of quaint and gloomy rooms not shown to the public, but which are extremely interesting, as their furniture and decorations are the same as when they were occupied by Augustus the Strong. The furniture in these apartments is in keeping with the stalwart proportions of that physically mighty sovereign, who is reported to have cracked a horseshoe between his finger and thumb, with the same facility that an ordinary man would crush a walnut. Huge chairs and tables, the former covered with embossed leather, the latter with embroidered velvet, encumber the dingy rooms, and the walls are hung with arras, displaying figures of the strangest proportions. One of these apartments still retains its ancient use; it is called the card-room, and it is the custom of the King and Queen, with

their court, to assemble in it on New Year's Eve, the royal family being seated around tables on a dais, and the rest of the party at other tables placed round the room. Those who have been presented to the King are then admitted, and allowed to walk round the apartment, while the royal family and the court, who are playing at cards, or rather holding them in their hands, exchange short greetings with their friends and acquaintances. At midnight precisely the sovereign retires, and the party is broken up. This singular custom was observed by Augustus the Strong, and has descended through a long series of reigns to the present day.

The new Picture Gallery, which is rapidly approaching completion, will be a great boon to the inhabitants of Dresden, for when the pictures are removed into it, they will be visible during the winter as well as summer months, which the absence of heating apparatus in the present very poor gallery renders impracticable. Apropos of art, the admirers of Retsch will like to know that he is in the full enjoyment of a hale and vigorous old age. I spent an afternoon with him in his charming cottage six miles from Dresden, where his days pass in peaceful tranquillity, interrupted only by the visits of his friends. Although his eyes are a little dimmer by years, he has not laid aside his pencil, and his studio exhibits various examples of his power.

In no continental city is there so much liberality shown to strangers in the use of a library as at Dresden. The visitor to that city is permitted to borrow many volumes from the fine national collection, and it is scarcely necessary to add that the privilege is largely exercised. The library possesses some very curious manuscripts, many of which are but little known. I was greatly interested in the examination of three large folio volumes, containing coloured representations on vellum of about six hundred tournaments and tilting matches which had taken place in the courtyard of the Palace at Dresden. The galleries from whence the spectators viewed these exciting combats are still in existence, and are faithfully portrayed in these curious drawings, which are, I believe, in other respects also historically faithful. I was surprised to hear that they have never been published. A selection from them of the most curious tournaments would be extremely interesting. The admirer of Albrecht Dürer will be much interested with an undoubtedly genuine relic of that artist. It consists of a folio, containing a great number of studies of the human figure, drawn with considerable care and anatomical accuracy. Each drawing is accompanied by marginal notes.

Whether the best singers and instrumentalists were absent from Dresden at the time of my visit or not, I cannot say, but certainly the music in the celebrated Catholic Court church was most disappointing, and far inferior to that at Prague or Cologne, and yet the above church bears a high character for its musical performances.

#### VARIETIES.

*The Imperial Library of St. Petersburg.*—This institution contains a vast number of volumes, of which about 200,000 are catalogued. Amongst them are a good many on natural history and geography, and all the works published in foreign countries on Russia. It is being constantly increased by new purchases; and the entire libraries of some distinguished *sarans*, as also part of that of the Imperial Palace of the Hermitage, have been quite recently added to it. It contains also an immense collection of manuscripts, some of them very ancient and of considerable importance, but the greater part relative to the Slavonian races. One MS. deserves particular mention; it is a Syriac translation of Eusebius, dated so far back as 463, and is more valuable because more complete than the famous one in the British Museum. The Imperial Library further contains the most complete collection ever formed of religious and other images, cut out of the bark of trees, for sale to the common people—a branch of art, if art it can be called, peculiar to Russia. It also possesses

a curious map of the world, with inscriptions in the Slavonian language, said to have been translated from the Latin. This map, which is without date, represents the four quarters of the world; but it makes the city of Moscow a trifle bigger than the North American continent; and it says of a certain island, "This island is deserted, but it contains dragons with white faces and human bodies, called basilisks." The Imperial Library, which, it will be seen, will bear comparison with some of the best in Western Europe, is thrown open to readers every ordinary day from ten in the morning to nine in the evening, and on Sundays and holidays from twelve till three. In the course of last year it is calculated that it was visited by 15,000 persons, and that they consulted 23,000 Russian and between 4000 and 5000 foreign books.

The Guildhall Library is a collection of books not generally familiar to literary men in London; it is, however, well worthy of their attention, inasmuch as it contains many books of exceeding rarity, peculiarly connected with metropolitan history, and therefore of general interest to denizens of London. The collection of works on ancient pageantry in the city is more perfect than that in any other library, except the Bodleian; it also possesses the rare original woodcut view of London in the reign of Elizabeth, by Agyas; an autograph of Shakspeare for which they paid 120*l.*; a singular collection of antiques found in excavating at the Royal Exchange; and some curious pictures of ancient London. With great liberality the Library Committee have recently sent free tickets to literary men, requesting them to use the library at all times; an act of graceful courtesy which does the citizens great honour, and cannot fail to be generally useful to authors.—*Art Journal*.

Fountains in London are very different things to those usually seen in continental cities. There they are artistic groups of figures, combined with beautiful bits of sculpture, and jets d'eau of graceful contour. Among ourselves, what they are had best be left to the generally expressed definition of most London visitors. The fountains in Trafalgar Square are bad enough, but there was one opposite Buckingham Palace which for deformity surpassed any other. It resembled a water-pipe set upward and driven through three tea-boards of unequal sizes. At last it has been removed, and a very pleasant and simple display of a group of jets bursting upward from rockwork has succeeded to it. This is well so far, and we hope the example may be followed elsewhere; and that if London is to have fountains, they may at least be inoffensive to the eye, something refreshing, not repulsive. A simple jet is better than any costly abortion.—*Art Journal*.

*Restoration of Carlisle Cathedral.*—Tenders for the restoration of Carlisle Cathedral were received to 29th July. There were four competitors. Messrs. Dove and Vasey, for 11,631*l.* 7*s.* 7*d.* were the successful parties, their offer being 5000*l.* below the highest. The alterations contemplated are extensive. The groined ceiling of the choir is to be removed, and the ancient circular ceiling restored. This alteration alone will cost about 1000*l.* The window in the north transept is to be replaced by one in harmony with the style of the building. The present entrance from Castle-street will be closed, and a main doorway made in the south transept, facing the abbey. The removal of houses in front of the large east window will afford space for an ornamental entrance; but this is not included in the specifications. The eastern window is to be taken down and restored, and the flat roof of the transept will be removed. The ground surrounding the cathedral is to be lowered. These alterations are to be completed in three years, the service going on without interruption.—*Builder*.

*James Watt.*—A monument to the memory of James Watt is to be erected in Edinburgh, in Adam-square, in front of the Watt Institution and School of Arts. The execution of the statue is entrusted to Mr. Peter Slater, of that city. It is expected that the monument will be inaugurated on the 19th of January next, the anniversary of the birth of Watt.

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